

FRONTISPIECE.



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Heath sculp.

*Britannia instructing Asia, Africa, Europe and America,
in the Science of Geography.*

Published as the Act directs, by Harrison & Co March 1. 1784.

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THE
Geographical Magazine;
OR,
NEW SYSTEM
OF
GEOGRAPHY.

WITH
BEAUTIFUL AND CORRECT VIEWS, MAPS,
AND
GLOBES.

By WILLIAM FREDERICK MARTYN, Esq.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOLUME THE SECOND.

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THE

W. W. W. W. W.

WITH

.GLOBE.

IN TWO VOLS.

FOR

AND

C O N T E N T S.

VOLUME THE SECOND.

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A
NEW MAP
of
EUROPE,
By
J. BAYLY,
Geographer.

British Statute Miles, 69 1/4 to a Degree.
25 50 100 200 300 400 500 600



A
N E W S Y S T E M
O F
G E O G R A P H Y.

E U R O P E.

THIS most distinguished quarter of the globe, which obtains the name of Alfrank among the Turks, and of Frankistan among the generality of the Asiatics, is situated between the 10th degree west and the 65th east longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degrees of north latitude ; extending about three thousand miles in length, and two thousand five hundred in breadth.

Europe is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean ; on the east by Asia, from which it is divided by the Archipelago, the Euxine or Black Sea, and thence by a line drawn from the River Don, the ancient Tanais, almost to the River Oby in Muscovy ; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Africa ; and, on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean.

This, though the least extensive quarter of the globe, claims distinguished pre-eminence over all the rest. The arts and sciences, which had their origin in Asia and Africa, and shone with a dawning lustre, have now totally set in those climates ; but have risen with additional splendor to gild this division of the earth. In Europe, the human mind has made the greatest advances towards all possible perfection and improvement ; and both the useful and ornamental arts have been cultivated with assiduity and success. It is true, Europe emerged later from barbarism than the quarters already described, and on the extinction of the Roman glory relapsed into a melancholy gloom ; yet the smothered sparks of learning, which had lain under the rust of near a thousand years, being called into life by the Medici family, and some others, whose names ought to be ever sacred to posterity, burst into a refulgent light, which for ages has been increasing.

To

To account for all the causes of the acknowledged superiority which this quarter now enjoys over the rest of the world, might perhaps be difficult. Some, however, are obvious. The happy temperature of it's climate, and the convenience of it's situation for universal commerce. The happy effects of a moderate climate, both on animals and men, are known by long experience: a more fertile soil and warmer sun have ever been incitements to effeminacy and enervation. The human mind always flourishes most, and arrives at the greatest perfection, where it has moderate difficulties to contend with, and where labour, commerce, or mental exertion, is necessary to subsistence. Where the earth spontaneously pours forth her fruits, and only invites the inhabitants to pluck them, every appetite is gratified as soon as raised, indolence usurps the empire of the mind, and the noblest faculties of the soul are never called by necessity into action.

The situation of Europe, too, with it's immense variety of rivers and seas, render it extremely commodious for the inhabitants, and tend greatly to facilitate the pursuits of commerce. These advantages serve also as natural boundaries to check the progress of despotism and conquest, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Asia and Africa; and even the most barren, uninviting rocks, which cover the surface of this division, being secured in the possession of their owners by local and political defences, assume a more pleasing prospect, and become dearer to the natives, than the most luxuriant spots, where property is precarious, and possession accidental.

Though most of the European governments are monarchical, we may discover a thousand little springs, which do not exist in less polished regions, to check the force and soften the rigour of absolute power. In proportion to the number and prevalence of these checks, the monarchies of Europe differ from one another. But besides monarchies, in which one man only bears sway, there are in Europe aristocracies, or governments of the nobles; and democracies or governments of the people. Venice furnishes us with an instance of the former; Holland, Switzerland, and some of the Italian states, with examples of the latter. There are likewise mixed governments, of which Great Britain is the most remarkable instance; where the equity of the laws, and the freedom of the subject, are more religiously observed than in any other region of the globe.

According to the most authentic surveys, the continental divisions of Europe will stand as follows, beginning with the most northern.

CONTINENT

EUROPE.

5

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.							
Countries.	Length.	Breadth.	Capitals.	Distance of time from London.	Distances and bearings from London.	Religions.	
Russia	1500	1100	Petersburg	2 4 A.M.	1140 N. E.	Greek Church	
Norway	1000	300	Bergen	0 24 A.M.	540 N.	Lutherans	
Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	0 50 A.M.	500 N. E.	Lutherans	
Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	1 10 A.M.	750 N.	Lutherans	
Poland	700	680	Warsaw	1 24 A.M.	760 E.	Pap. Luth. and Cal.	
King of Prussia's dominions	Uncertain	Uncertain	Berlin	0 59 A.M.	540 E.	Luth. and Cal.	
Germany	600	500	Vienna	1 5 A.M.	600 E.	Pap. Luth. and Cal.	
Bohemia	300	250	Prague	1 4 A.M.	600 E.	Papists	
Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	0 18 A.M.	180 E.	Calvinists	
Flanders	200	200	Brussels	0 16 A.M.	180 S. E.	Papists	
France	600	500	Paris	0 9 A.M.	200 S. E.	Papists	
Spain	700	500	Madrid	0 17 P.M.	800 S.	Papists	
Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	0 38 P.M.	850 S. W.	Papists	
Switzerland	260	100	Bern	0 28 P.M.	420 S. E.	Calvin. and Papist.	
Italian States.	Naples	280	120	Naples	1 0 A.M.	870 S. E.	Papists
	Papedom	240	120	Rome	0 52 A.M.	820 S. E.	
	Piedmont	140	98	Turin			
	Milan	155	70	Milan			
	Montferrat	40	22	Casal			
	Modena	65	39	Modena			
	Parma	48	37	Parma			
	Mantua	47	27	Mantua			
	Genoa	160	25	Genoa			
	Venice	175	95	Venice			
Tuscany	115	94	Florence				
Hungary	300	200	Buda	1 17 A.M.	780 S. E.		
Turkey in Europe.	Danubian Provinces	600	420	Constantinople	1 58 A.M.	1320 S. E.	Mahomet. and Greek Church.
	Little Tartary	380	240	Caffa	2 24 A.M.	1500 E.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1 37 A.M.	1360 S. E.	

B

ISLANDS

ISLANDS OF EUROPE.		
Names.	Chief Towns.	In the possession of.
In the Atlantic Ocean—		
Great Britain	London and Edinburgh	Great Britain
Ireland	Dublin	
Anglesea	Beaumaris	
Man	Douglas	
Scilly	No Town	
Wight	Newport	
The Hebrides, or Western Isles	Duart	
Orcades	Pomona	
Shetland	Larwick	
In the Northern Ocean—		
Faro Isles	No Town	Denmark
Iceland	Skalholt	
In the Baltic Sea—		
Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm	Copenhagen, &c.	Denmark
Gothland, Oeland, Aland, Ru- gen	Wisby, &c.	Sweden
Oiel and Dagho		Russia
Usedom and Wollin		Prussia
In the Mediterranean Sea—		
Ivica	Ivica	Spain
Majorca	Majorca	
Minorca	Port Mahon	France Sardinia King of Two Sicilies Knights of St. John
Corfica	Bastia	
Sardinia	Cagliari	
Sicily	Palermo	
Malta	Valetta	
In the Adriatic Sea—		
Lufiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia		Venice
In the Archipelago and Levant—		
Candia, Negropont, Delos, Pa- ros, Patmos, Lemnos, Cerigo, Santorin, &c.	Candia, &c.	Ottoman Empire

Having

EUROPE.

Having thus given a general view of Europe, its kingdoms, states, and islands, it may not perhaps be uninteresting to exhibit a short sketch of its general history, and the means by which it assumed its present political appearance.

On the total extinction of the Roman empire, from which æra we shall deduce our researches, the Saxons, a German nation, made themselves masters of the more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another German tribe, possessed themselves of Gaul, or France; the Goths, of Spain; and the Lombards, of Italy and the neighbouring provinces. At this time, almost every vestige of the Roman policy, jurisprudence, arts, and literature, was lost; and, for near a thousand years, Europe exhibited a melancholy picture of gloomy ignorance and Gothic barbarity. Literature, taste, science, and the several arts which polish and adorn human life, were scarcely known: persons of the highest rank could neither read nor write; and the human mind, neglected and uncultivated, sunk into a torpid insensibility. The superior genius of a few great men, among whom we must not forget to include Charlemagne, and Alfred the Great, in vain endeavoured to dispel the cheerless gloom: they, indeed, gave a few rays of light; but the shades of ignorance were too powerful for their utmost efforts, and returning darkness settled thicker on Europe than before.

In these ages the feudal system was introduced, a new and a singular form of government. The chieftains of the barbarous tribes, who led them on to conquest, parcelled out the lands of the vanquished among their principal officers, binding those on whom they were bestowed to follow their standards, with certain proportions of troops. These officers imitated the example of their head; and, in distributing portions of their lands to others, imposed similar conditions.

This system, though admirably calculated for general defence against invasion, soon degenerated into tyranny and oppression. The nobles reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude, and even deprived them of the most unalienable rights of humanity; they regarded them as slaves fixed to the soil which they cultivated, and with which they were transferred from one proprietor to another. Every offended chieftain met his enemy at the head of his vassals; and the kindred and dependents of the aggressor, as well as of the avenger, were necessarily involved in the sanguinary contest.

The monarchs of Europe beheld this usurpation of their nobles with concern; and, to moderate the violence of these haughty despots, they adopted the plan of conferring peculiar privileges and immunities on the inhabitants of certain cities and towns, so as to abolish every mark of servitude in such places. This accession of liberty made a happy alteration in the condition of mankind: it roused them from that inactive stupidity into which their wretchedness had thrown them; and industry and commerce began to revive and flourish. To this revival of the spirit of commerce and adventure, several other causes essentially contributed. The holy wars, in which almost every nation of Europe was engaged, opened a passage to the East, and gave the crusaders a relish for such precious commodities as they perceived might easily be derived from commercial exertions. The Venetians and Genoese soon began to establish a regular trade with India and Egypt; and to disseminate among the other nations of Europe, to great advantage, the several imported articles.

articles. During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the commerce of Europe was wholly in the hands of the Lombards, or Italians, who were become the carriers, manufacturers, and bankers of every different kingdom; and, except in opening the eyes of those nations among whom they settled, to a sense of the advantages which might be derived from an imitation of their conduct, they enjoyed almost the entire profit of a monopolized commerce.

During this period, the Danes, Swedes, and other nations of the Baltic, were sunk in barbarity; and, infesting the seas with their piracies, obliged eighty of the most considerable cities in Germany and Flanders to enter into a confederacy for their mutual defence, which was called the Hanseatic League. This association soon became so formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity dreaded, by the greatest princes of Europe. The Hanseatic merchants supplied the rest of Europe with naval stores, and established staples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. As Bruges in Flanders became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic confederates, the adjacent provinces, from a spirit of industry and commerce which reigned among their inhabitants, soon became the most opulent and populous of any in Europe.

Edward III. of England, to whom our commerce is much indebted, ascribing the prosperity of these provinces to the true causes, endeavoured to excite among his own subjects a thirst for enterprize and manufactures; but the people of England, ignorant of the advantages of their situation, and of the source from which opulence was destined to flow into their country, had hitherto totally neglected commerce, and had not even attempted to manufacture those articles, the materials for constructing which they had long furnished to others. This prince, by many wise and salutary laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, and by allowing Flemish artists and manufactures to settle in his dominions, gave an origin to our woollen manufacture, and laid the foundation of that commerce, which has raised the British nation to the first rank among European kingdoms.

The mariner's compass, which had been invented some ages before, as it facilitated the communication between distant nations, tended to promote a spirit for navigation and discovery. The Portuguese had found a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope; and Columbus, who was endued with more than human perseverance and resolution, had added an entire quarter to the globe, by the discovery of America.

From this æra, Europe began hastily to emerge from its ignorance and inactivity. These discoveries were followed by the invention of printing; the revival of arts and sciences, under the auspices of some great and venerable names; and, lastly, by a happy reformation in religion. In these ages, the great powers of Europe were formed into one grand political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than might have been expected, considering the infinite number of foreign wars and intestine revolutions. The political maxims and principles then established, still in some measure continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or generally received, still influence the councils of European nations. Lately, indeed, we have seen a contrary doctrine prevail. Several of the European powers have assisted in detaching the dependencies of Britain from an allegiance to her government, and leagued kingdoms have endeavoured to crush her to annihilation. But may we
not

not ascribe this to jealousy in the neighbouring powers, at seeing her become too mighty, and possessed of too extensive a territory? And may we not reasonably conclude that, had she never aspired to be the queen of nations, she never would have sunk so low in the scale of political consequence?

Besides the circumscribing oceans and seas, Europe contains the German Ocean, the Mediterranean Sea, the Adriatic, the Black Sea, the White Sea, and the Baltic. The principal channels are, the English, which divides England from France; and St. George's, which runs between England and Ireland. Biscay is the only remarkable bay belonging to this continent; but there are three gulphs, viz. Bothnia, Finland, and Venice.

The chief lakes are those of Constance, Geneva, Wenner, Ladoga, Onega, Lochabar, and Neagh; and the most celebrated rivers are, the Danube, Rhine, Wolga, Dwina, Loire, Seine, Thames, and Severn.

Among the principal mountains of Europe we must particularize the Alps, the Pyrenees, the Dofrine Hills in Sweden, the Grapach in Hungary, the Grampian Hills in Scotland, and Snowdon in Wales.

Throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey, the Christian religion prevails; but, from the various conceptions of the human mind, and the different views in which speculative doctrines are apt to appear when seen by people of different passions and educations, that religion has been divided into a number of sects; which, however, may be all included under three general heads: the Greek Church, the Roman Catholic Church, and the Protestant Reformed Churches. The European languages are all derived from these six original ones: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic, Celtic, Slavonic, and Gothic; different dialects of which, with other local or accidental additions, form at the present day the basis of the various languages of this continent.

BOOK V.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

CHAP. I.

RUSSIA.

THIS mighty empire has Asia for it's eastern boundary; the River Don, and a line drawn from the Neiper to the mouth of the Don, for it's southern; the Neiper, the Gulph of Riga, and Finland, Sweden, and Swedish Lapland, for it's western; and the Frozen Ocean for it's northern boundary. It extends from the 47th to the 72d degree of north latitude, and from the 23d to the 65th of eastern longitude, being about one thousand five hundred miles in length, and eleven hundred in breadth.

These are the proper and ancient limits of Russia; but conquest and discovery have added an immense extent of territory to it's empire; so that now, when it is noon-day in it's western parts, it is almost midnight in it's eastern. The Swedes, Poles, and Turks, have sunk beneath it's arms; and whole provinces have been wrested from their respective dominions, and united to this great northern monarchy, which infinitely exceeds the limits of the most celebrated empires of antiquity, even when in the zenith of their glory.

As this very extensive country consists of a great number of provinces, both the soil and climate must be extremely various. Beyond the 60th degree of latitude, corn scarcely ever arrives at maturity; and beyond the 70th, hardly any species of fruit is produced; but in the middle provinces of the empire, the soil is fruitful, the woods abound with game, the plains are stocked with cattle, and the rivers teem with a variety of excellent fish. In the more southern provinces, the climate is hot; and where there is a sufficient depth of soil, flowers and fruits arrive at great perfection; the earth is covered with verdure, and nature indicates a happy fertility.

In the more northern districts, the cold in winter is intolerably severe, and the days short, while in summer the weather is proportionably warm, and the days pleasant. At the winter solstice, in the latitude of Archangel, the sun rises at near half past ten in the morning, and sets about half past one in the afternoon: at Petersburg, he rises at a quarter after nine, and sets three-quarters after two; while, in the latitude of Astracan, he rises about three-quarters after seven, and sets about a quarter after four. In summer this order is reversed; and the length of the shortest day becomes the length of the night, and the length of the longest night the length of the day, at the solstice, in these respective latitudes. And here it may be observed, that the eastern countries are more intensely cold in winter, and hot in summer, than the western, which lie under the same parallels of latitude.

Vegetation



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Vegetation is likewise quicker, and the fruits sooner arrive at maturity; but, after a short summer, of three or four months at most, winter again lays it's icy hand on the ground, nips the lingering verdure, chains the rivers to their beds, and discovers only one continuous landscape of snow. In this dreary season, when the stars, the twilight, or the aurora-borealis, supply the place of the short-lived day, numbers are frozen to death; and yet travelling is performed upon the snow, by means of sledges, with so much expedition, that the beef of Archangel is frequently eat at Petersburg, though these cities are distant from one another a thousand English miles at least. The Russian stoves, however, are excellently calculated to introduce any requisite degree of heat into the houses of the more opulent or refined; but the poorer sort of people contend with many difficulties, live hard, and are but indifferently clothed for such an inclement clime.

Agriculture, though encouraged by the Empress, is still but imperfectly understood in most parts of Russia; extensive tracks lie entirely waste, and the general population of the country bears no proportion to it's limits. Some, indeed, have calculated, that the number of inhabitants of the Russian empire, exclusive of the conquered provinces, amounts to fifteen millions: but as all accounts of this kind must be vague, arbitrary, and uncertain, we shall not even presume to hazard an opinion upon the subject. The foreign wars, which have extended the territories of the empire, and the grand projects which have aggrandized the names of some of it's sovereigns, have certainly been unfavourable to population; and it will probably be several ages before Russia is as well peopled as the more southern countries of Europe.

The principal river of Russia is the Wolga, (in Latin Volga) one of the largest in the world, rising in the Forest of Wolcanski; and which, after a course of more than two thousand miles, falls into the Caspian Sea. It is navigable for large ships at Iwer, a town not more than forty leagues from it's source; and is sometimes so swelled by the melting of ice and snow, as to occasion dreadful inundations, and many fatal disasters; it, however, fertilizes the land through which it passes in a wonderful manner, and in all it's long and winding course has not a single cataract or obstruction to navigation. By this river, too, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but likewise with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and the countries bordering on the Caspian Sea.

The Don, or Tanais, is the next river that claims our attention. It rises near Tula, in the Iwana Ossero, or St. John's Lake; and, dividing Europe from Asia, runs from north to south till it's conflux with the Sosna, when it directs it's course from west to east; but, after many tedious windings, it again takes it's first direction, and falls into the Sea of Asoph. This river in it's course approaches so near the Wolga, that the distance between them is not more than eight English miles. Between these, the late Czar undertook to form a communication; but this noble project was defeated by the irruption of the Tartars, and has never since been resumed.

The Nieper, or Boristhenes, is likewise a very considerable river, which rising from a morass in the Forest of Wolkoniski, forms several windings through Lithuania, Little Russia, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaian Tartars, and at last discharges

discharges itself into the Euxine or Black Sea, near Oczakow. This river has no less than thirteen water-falls within the space of sixty wersts; but, during the spring season, when the floods are out, vessels may be hauled over them.

These capital rivers, besides many others of inferior note, abound with fish, render the soil fertile and agreeable, open a communication between the most distant provinces, and when trade is once well understood, will be equally the source of wealth, elegance, and convenience.

The most considerable lakes in this empire are those of Ladoga and Onega: the former of which is one hundred and fifty miles in length, and ninety in breadth. It abounds in fish; but being full of quicksands, which are moved from place to place by the frequent storms to which it is subject, several shelves are thereby formed along its course, which often prove fatal to the Russian craft that navigate it. This induced Peter the Great to cause a canal near seventy miles in length to be cut from its south-west extremity to the sea, at an immense expence, and with incredible labour, which was unremitted for four years. This canal has twenty-five sluices upon it; and, in its course, receives several rivers: a regiment of soldiers is constantly employed to keep it in repair; and in summer it is covered with a number of floats and vessels, which pay a toll apportioned to the value of their cargoes.

The Lake of Onega lies between Ladoga and the White Sea, and has a communication with the former by means of the River Swir; it is one hundred and eighty wersts in length, and about eighty in breadth; and, though its water is fresh, seals are often caught in it.

Nor is this country destitute of medicinal and saline springs. Silver likewise, mixed with some gold, is dug out of its mines; and excellent copper, iron, isinglass, and precious stones, abound in several places.

Besides the domestic animals common to the rest of Europe, here are wild beeves, reindeer, martens, white and black foxes, ermines, fables whose skins make the best furs in the world, hyænas, bears, and wolves. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is likewise a native of this empire, and preys on every creature it can master.

Russia does not appear to produce any birds or fishes but what have been already described in the course of this work. Of the roe of the sturgeon and belega, however, which seem to be of the same genus, they make caviar, so much celebrated for its extraordinary richness and flavour.

Having exhibited a general view of this empire, we shall next give a succinct detail of its history, which is both interesting and instructive.

Our deepest researches into antiquity relative to Russia, cannot with any probability be carried farther than the introduction of Christianity into it, which happened about the tenth century; when a princess of this country, named Olha, received the rite of spiritual ablution at Jerusalem, which may in some measure account for the Russians embracing the doctrines of the Greek church. It was not, however, till about the year 1450; that the princes of this country were of much consequence, being, till then, either tributary or subject to the Tartars. About this period, Iwan Basilides overthrew the Tartars
in

in several obstinate battles, together with the Prince of Novogorod, from whom he is reported to have carried off three hundred cart-loads of gold and silver.

Iwan Basilowitz II. his grandson, equally distinguished for his bravery and address, enlarged the bounds of his native dominions by the conquest of the kingdoms of Casan and Astracan. Before him, the sovereigns of Russia had only assumed the name of Knez, or Prince; but now the title of Czar, which seem to be a word of Persian original, was added to their dignity.

On the demise of Iwan Basilowitz, the Russian throne was filled by a succession of weak and wicked princes; their country was torn by intestine divisions, and their frontiers exposed to the repeated insults of the Poles and Swedes. At length, however, the boyars, or great body of the nobility, impelled by despair, so late as the year 1613, set about rescuing their country from internal and foreign foes. At this time, their independency was become nearly extinct. Uladislaus, son of Sigismund II. of Poland, had been declared Czar of Russia; but the tyranny of his government was such as to excite a general rebellion, and the Poles were defeated and driven out of Moscow. The Archbishop of Rostow, whose wife was descended from the ancient line of sovereigns, had been sent ambassador into Poland, and detained prisoner under the most ungenerous pretences: the boyars, out of veneration to his person and family, met in grand consultation, and elected his son Michael, a youth of fifteen years of age, to be their sovereign. The archbishop was soon after released, in exchange for some Polish prisoners of distinction; and, being consecrated patriarch by his son, reigned in his right with great prudence and success. Michael, in time, became capable of assuming the reins of government himself; he baffled the efforts of the Poles in a variety of engagements; established his government in perfect security; and even entered into a treaty of commerce with James I. of England: from which we may deduce, that he was not only intimately acquainted with the interests of his own subjects, but likewise with the laws and institutions of other nations.

This prince was succeeded by his son Alexis, who appears to have possessed a very enterprising genius: he was generally fortunate in his wars; but, in some instances, the Swedes prevailed against him. Nor were his abilities confined only to the field; he drew up a code of laws for the civil government of his subjects, which is said to be still extant; and cultivated a polite correspondence with the other European potentates: he also introduced into his dominions the manufacture of linen and silk; and, after quelling a dangerous insurrection among the Cossacs, died suddenly, at the age of forty-six, in the year 1675, leaving behind him three sons and a daughter. The names of his sons were, Theodore; Iwan, or John; and Peter, who was by a second marriage; and his daughter was called Sophia.

Theodore mounted the throne, and gave proofs of an excellent disposition; but, struggling with ill health and bodily infirmities, he died in a short time without any issue. His second brother Iwan being almost blind and dumb, Theodore, before his death, had nominated his younger brother Peter to the succession, who was then only ten years old. This disgusting the ambitious Princess Sophia, she found means to raise a dreadful sedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the standing army of Russia; and, replacing Iwan in his birthright,

birthright, she exercised the government herself with unparalleled severity and barbarity, putting to death all the Russian grandees who were either related to Peter or supposed to be in his interest. At length, her two brothers were joined with her in the administration; but, finding her sanguinary measures meet with continual opposition, she formed the intention of espousing Prince Galitzen, a man of great spirit and address. To open her plot, Sophia placed this prince at the head of an army which was sent into Crim Tartary; but, Peter being now seventeen years of age, and asserting his birthright to the throne, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeating or destroying Sophia's adherents, forced her to retire into a monastery. On this revolution, the vast estate of Galitzen was confiscated, and the following curious sentence was pronounced, as his personal punishment. 'Thou art commanded, by the most Clement Czar, to repair to Karga, a town situate under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days: his majesty, out of his extreme bounty, allows thee three-pence a day for thy subsistence.'

In 1696, Iwan departed this life, and Peter I. or, as he is more commonly called, Czar Peter the Great, became sole regent; whose various adventures and brilliant exploits, both in peace and war, would compose a voluminous history. Though his education was originally mean, he associated himself with German and Dutch artists; and, by means of La Fort a Piedmontese, and General Gordon a North Britain, raised and disciplined a regular body of troops, intended to counteract the power of the Strelitzes, which was now become dangerous. To these two gentlemen Peter committed his affairs, and set out on his travels as an attendant to his own ambassadors. At Deptford and Saardam he worked as a common carpenter, and acquired a perfect knowledge of ship-building and navigation; and, returning some years after into his own country, fraught with the wisdom and policy of various nations, by means of the excellent discipline introduced among his troops, he at last exterminated the whole body of the Strelitzes, except two feeble and reduced regiments. He gradually rose from the lowest to the highest station, both by sea and land; and those defeats which he suffered served only to animate his ambition and extend his knowledge. This great prince had no regard for rank, independent of merit: as a proof of which he espoused Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier; because, after long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul congenial to his own. The many illustrious victories which Peter gained, both by sea and land, are among the meanest glories of his reign: he applied himself with the utmost assiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences; he raised his subjects to the rank of a civilized nation; and, by every exertion of power, prudence, and address, shewed himself one of the greatest princes who ever graced the annals of history.

The happiness of his reign, however, was disturbed by the dangerous practices of his son; who, being accused of designs against his father's life, was tried and condemned to die: but a fever, as it is said, prevented this sentence from being put in execution. Upon this, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned with great pomp, and to be recognized as his successor: which was accordingly performed; and, on his demise, she mounted the Russian throne. She died in 1727, after a glorious reign; and was succeeded by Peter

Peter II. a minor, grandson of Peter I. Many domestic revolutions happened during the short and unsettled reign of this prince; who, dying of the small-pox in 1730, and in him the male issue of the line being extinct, the Russians set aside the order of succession which Peter the Great had established, and filled the throne with Anne Dutcheffs of Courland, second daughter of Iwan, Peter's brother, though the Dutcheffs of Mecklenburg, her eldest sister, was then alive. Her reign was prosperous and glorious; and though she accepted the government under limitations derogatory to her dignity, she broke through them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and severely punished those who had imposed them. She died in 1740; and, by her will, nominated John, the son of her niece the Princess of Mecklenburg, who was then only two years old, to be her successor; appointing Count Biron to be regent during his minority. This appointment was disgusting to the Princess of Mecklenburg and her husband, as well as unpopular among the Russians; Biron was therefore tried, and condemned to die, but his sentence was afterwards changed into perpetual banishment to Siberia.

Upon this the Princess of Mecklenburg and her husband assumed the reins of government; but their administration proving, on many accounts, disagreeable to the Russians, the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, raised a formidable party; and, in one night, she was declared and proclaimed Empress of all the Russias, and the Prince and Princess of Mecklenburg, with their son, were made prisoners.

The reign of Elizabeth was in glory inferior only to that of her father: she abolished capital punishments, and introduced into civil and military proceedings a moderation before unknown; and, having illustriously finished a war with Sweden, she replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the Duke of Holstein Gottorp, who was lineally descended from her eldest sister, her heir. To this prince she gave the title of Grand Duke of Russia, and called him to her court; when he renounced his pretensions to the crown of Sweden, his birthright, and embraced the Greek religion; marrying a princess of Anhalt Zerbst, (the present Empress) by whom he had a son, now heir-apparent to the Russian throne. Elizabeth enjoyed an uninterrupted career of glory; she rose victorious over all her enemies; her alliance was courted by some of the greatest powers of Europe; and she died, in the zenith of conquest, on the 5th of January 1762.

Peter III. Grand Prince of Russia and Duke of Holstein Gottorp, a prince whose conduct has been variously represented by historians, succeeded Elizabeth. He mounted the throne with several peculiarities and attachments, which were rather inimical to his popularity; but he might probably have surmounted the effects of these, had he not aimed at reformatations among the clergy, which even Peter the Great never dared to attempt. His memory has likewise been stained with the charge of several domestic irregularities, which his spirited empress could not easily brook: but, whatever might be the reason, certain it is that an universal conspiracy was formed against him, at the head of which was his own empress, and that he lost his crown and his life almost at the same time; but whether by violence, or a natural death, has not been clearly ascertained. The reign of Peter III. was too short to allow of any proofs of a capacity for government: he was unfortunate in his prejudices, and might have been criminal in many of his actions; but his fate was such as entitles

entitles him to our pity, and in a great measure obliterates the charges which have been alleged against him.

On the deposition of her husband, the empress assumed the reins of government, by the title of Catharine II. in 1762; and whatever right she might have to the exercise of royalty, she has shewn that her ambition did not exceed her abilities. For superior address, genius, and intrepidity, the arts of peace and of war, she remains an unique in history. Her glorious achievements against the Turks are too recent in the memory of mankind to be insisted on here; her love of learning and the learned, her munificence to merit, and her penetration in discovering it, incontestibly prove her worthy of the exalted station she fills. At this time, while every internal regulation that can contribute to the improvement or the credit of her people, is carrying on with unwearied assiduity; while her councils admonish or awe the different powers of Europe; she is ready a second time to draw her sword against the Turks: and the nations around, with anxious expectation, wait to see whether hostilities will commence, or differences be amicably adjusted, between these rival nations.

Catharine II. has issue by her consort, a prince named Paul Petrowitz, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and has three children.

Having given a short history of this country, and a character of its several sovereigns, we shall now proceed to describe its inhabitants, their customs and manners.

Before the reign of Peter the Great, the Russians, as before observed, were hardly ranked with the civilized nations of Europe; but that great prince, with a happy temperance of mildness and severity, performed wonders in bringing them over to a more polished way of life. In their persons, the Russians are of a middle stature, well-shaped, and comely. The vulgar are excessively attached to ancient institutions; and many of them chuse rather to submit to the payment of additional taxes, than conform to some regulations which government has thought proper to adopt for their improvement: among these, cutting their beards still meets with a powerful opposition from many of the lower class. The Russian women, who consider a ruddy complexion as the very essence of beauty, are extremely addicted to painting; and even the poorer sort will beg money to buy paint.

The common people, in their dress, are excessively mean, being generally clothed with long coats made of sheep-skins dressed, with the hair turned inwards; while their legs and feet are swaddled with coarse cloth, secured by cords composed of reeds, with sandals of the same cheap materials. They wear caps lined with furs, and secure their hands from the cold by double gloves. The women of the same class, exclusive of their petticoats, wear sheep-skins like the men; while those of a higher rank of both sexes dress much after the English fashion; but all ranks wear crosses on their breasts, which are put on at their baptism, and never laid aside during life. The Russians seldom neglect bathing twice a week, for which purpose almost every house is furnished with a bath; and, what is remarkable, as soon as they have left the warm water, they often sally out naked, and roll themselves in the snow; which vicissitudes of cold and heat they consider as invigorating to the constitution.

Before a Russian welcomes his guest, the visitor is obliged to make the sign of the cross, and



THE EMPRESS OF RUSSIA'S TRAVELLING EQUIPAGE.

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and to bow to some pictured saint, which is so placed as to be visible at coming in. In visits of ceremony, the men and women usually salute with a kiss; but the respect of the lower class to any person of elevated rank is shewn by prostrating themselves before the party.

The houses, both in towns and villages, are usually formed by laying one beam of wood above another, fastening the whole edifice at the four corners, and filling up all the crevices with moss: the building is afterwards covered with shingles, holes being cut in the timber for doors and windows. A large oven, or brick-stove, is commonly erected in the houses of the peasants, which generally fills a fourth part of the area: and over this place, which is flat at the top, and boarded, the whole family repose; some on the floor, and others on shelves round the room. The furniture of the meaner sort consists only of two or three benches, a table, pictures of saints, and a few necessary domestic utensils.

Fish is much more generally used than flesh among all ranks of people in this empire; as the fasts occupy near two-thirds of the year, during which they are absolutely prohibited by their religion from tasting flesh. But notwithstanding the narrow circumstances of the common people, and the abstemiousness their religion enjoins, they are extravagantly fond of spirituous and other strong liquors; for which, indeed, the severity of the climate may in a great measure apologize. According to some writers, even the ladies are so far from being ashamed of indulging themselves to excess in this odious vice, that they frankly acknowledge their having been very drunk, and return thanks to their friends for making them so.

Travelling in this country is performed with cheapness and expedition; the post-roads leading to the principal towns being exactly measured, the wersts marked, and the post-stages fixed at moderate distances. In summer, post-horses are usually employed; but in winter, when the snow becomes sufficiently hard, persons of rank travel in sledges drawn by rein-deer, which are excellently calculated for expedition.

In the internal parts of Russia, however, these sledges are drawn by horses; and the sledge-way towards February becomes so well beaten, that a journey between Petersburg and Moscow, which is 400 miles, can be accomplished with ease in three days and three nights. When her Imperial Majesty travels, she is drawn by no less than twenty-four post-horses, in a kind of house, containing a bed, table, chairs, and other conveniences, for four people.

The Slavonian language forms the basis of that of Russia; but the latter is enriched with many words from the Greek. The alphabet consists of forty-two characters, principally Greek as they were written in the ninth century; but, as this did not express every particular sound, recourse was had to several Hebrew letters, and some arbitrary signs were invented. Different dialects, however, prevail in different provinces, the principal of which are those of Muscovy, Novogorod, and Archangel.

The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek Church; which was first introduced by Olha, Great Dutchess of Russia, about the commencement of the eleventh century. The external part of this religion consists in the number and severity of its fasts, in which it far exceeds the Church of Rome. Wednesdays and Fridays are fast-days throughout the year. But, besides these, and the strict observance of all other seasons and

days usually dedicated to religion in other parts of the Christian world, a number of festivals are enjoined by the civil power, when all public business must be suspended on pain of the severest inflictions.

The Russians deny the Pope's supremacy, and disclaim the worship of graven images; and yet are so absurdly inconsistent, that in their private devotions they kneel before a picture of our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, or some particular saint, whom they consider as mediators. Their churches are full of pictured saints; and, in their public religious worship, they retain many superstitious and idolatrous customs, such as bowing, crossing themselves when they pass by a church, and prostrating themselves at the entrance; and, if conscious of having contracted any impurity, they forbear to enter the door. Even ringing of bells is considered as an act of devotion; for which reason the capital towns are supplied with a great number of them, which are almost incessantly chiming. Divine service is performed in the Slavonic tongue; which, as it differs much from the modern Russian language, is only understood by the clergy. The vulgar know very little of the Bible; nor are any great pains taken to instruct youth in the principles of their religion. Sermons are seldom delivered in any of their churches, the whole service consisting in abundance of ceremonies, prayers, masses, and singing; which last is the peculiar province of the choristers, the congregation being prohibited from joining in this sublime act of devotion.

Every large village is furnished with a church, and an officiating priest; and the towns are crowded with religious structures: but the wise and politic Peter the Great suppressed all the dangerous powers of the dignified clergy, declared himself the head of the church, and left the priests to depend for a subsistence on the benevolence of their hearers. Before his reign, a great number of both sexes were shut up in convents; but he prudently ordained, that no person should be allowed to enter on a monastic life under fifty years of age: however, a greater indulgence has since been granted by government, in permitting men to become monks at thirty.

The performance of the rite of spiritual ablution is accompanied with a variety of superstitious ceremonies, such as conjuring the unclean spirit to get out of the child, and make room for the Holy Ghost; crossing his forehead, hands, breast, and back, with consecrated oil; putting on a clean shirt; and then pronouncing the following words—'Thou art as clean from thy original sin as this shirt!'

In Russia there are two metropolitans; one of whom resides at Kiou, and the other at Tobolski; differing from the bishops only in their titles, the archbishop being superior to them. All ecclesiastical matters are under the direction of a council, instituted in 1719, called the Most Holy Synod. Subordinate to this are two others; the first of which has the management of all the ecclesiastical lands and revenues; and the other executes the regulations made with regard to the Separatists, and the taxes imposed upon them for enjoying the privilege of wearing their beards. These Separatists are called, by way of contempt, Roskolniki, or Schismatists; but they stile themselves Starowierzi, or Ancient Believers. The clergy are all restrained to monogamy, on pain of deprivation and disgrace;

for

for should an ecclesiastic marry a second time, he immediately loses his benefice, and sinks into obloquy.

But though the Greek Church is the established religion of Russia, in the conquered provinces every person is permitted to profess the faith in which he was brought up. Full liberty of conscience is given to sectaries of all denominations, Jews and Jesuits excepted: and even a great number of the Russian subjects are Pagans and Mahometans. The most laudable endeavours, however, have been applied to promulgate the Christian doctrines in the remotest limits of the empire; but ignorance has yet in a great measure opposed the desired success: the human mind, sunk in the wretchedness of ignorance, with difficulty comprehends the sublime scheme of revelation; and, probably, the best method of propagating religious knowledge would be to communicate general instruction, to render letters and literature universal, and to pave the way for the perception of particular doctrines, by opening the benighted mind, and calling into action the dormant faculties of the soul.

The marriage-ceremonies in this country are very particular; and have been thus described by an intelligent and authentic modern traveller.

When preliminaries are agreed on between the parents, if they are of rank, a woman, called the *suacha*, is appointed by the friends of the bridegroom, and another by the friends of the bride, to superintend the nuptials, and to provide every requisite for the marriage-chamber; the nuptial-bed being formed of sheaves of rye, wheat, barley, and oats, laid in regular order. The bridegroom sets out late in the evening, attended by his kindred and the priest who is to perform the ceremony, for the bride's abode; where three dishes of meat are served up, but neither of them are to be tasted by any of the company. After several preparatory ceremonies, they all proceed to church, where the young couple stand on a piece of taffety, with a canopy of the same over their heads: having there made an offering of fried meats, fish, and pastry, the priest gives them his benediction; and, taking the man by his right-hand, and the woman by her left, he asks them three times, whether they voluntarily enter into the nuptial state, and entertain that affection for one another which they ought. These interrogatories being answered in the affirmative, the whole company join hands, and the priest sings the 128th Psalm; which being ended, he puts garlands of rue upon the heads of the bride and bridegroom, saying—'Increase and multiply! Whom God hath joined together, let no man put asunder!' While the priest is pronouncing these words, each of the company lights a wax-candle; when one of them presents the priest with a glass of wine, who pledges the married couple; and, after a few reciprocal ceremonies, the bridegroom dashing the glass against the floor, and the bride joining him in treading it under foot, they exclaim—'May they thus fall under our feet, and be trodden to pieces, who shall endeavour to sow division or discontent between us!' This ceremony being ended, they return; and, after several other superstitious observances, the bride is put to bed, the bridegroom following soon after. After a proper interval, a servant, who waits at the door, asks if the business be completed; and, on being answered by the bridegroom in the affirmative, he immediately communicates his information to the guests, when music and joy commence, which sometimes continue for the space of two days.

Inferior

Inferior people, however, practise fewer ceremonies; and, indeed, the intercourse between the sexes begins by degrees to render several of these ancient customs obsolete.

Polygamy is interdicted, on pain of death; but if the empress proves barren, it is a sufficient sanction for the emperor to espouse another. Second marriages are far from being esteemed honourable in this country; a third marriage is seldom permitted, unless on extraordinary occasions; and a fourth is punished with death.

When a husband dies, the widow instantly collects her kindred and friends; who, surrounding him, break out into the most doleful lamentations. They then wash him; and, putting a clean shirt or shroud on the corpse, with a pair of thin Russia leather shoes, they lay it in a coffin formed out of the trunk of a tree; and, covering the whole with a cloth, send presents to the priest, to engage him to pray for the departed soul; and among the higher ranks, the corpse is kept upwards of a week, during which the priest every day sprinkles it with holy-water, and purifies it with incense. At length the priest heads the procession, carrying the picture of the patron-saint of the deceased, followed by four virgins, selected from his nearest relations; after whom the corpse is borne by six men, upon their shoulders, surrounded by several priests, pouring incense upon the coffin, and singing psalms, to keep off the noxious spirits; and behind follow a promiscuous multitude of kindred and neighbours, without any regularity. When they reach the place of sepulture, the coffin is uncovered; and the priest, holding over it the picture of the saint, repeats several prayers, in which this expression frequently occurs—'Lord, look upon this soul in righteousness!' In the mean while, the relations of the deceased continue their lamentations, till the priest takes a piece of paper, signed by the bishop of the place and the confessor, and puts it into the coffin, as a passport into paradise, after which the grave is closed.

The duration of mourning is limited to forty days, in which three feasts are made for the relations of the deceased, on the third, ninth, and twentieth days after the funeral: during this period, the priest repeats certain prayers every morning and evening over the grave, which is for that purpose covered with a small shelter of mats. As the Russians deny Purgatory, these prayers for the deceased may appear very unaccountable; but it is among the number of their religious tenets, that there are two distinct places where the souls of men retire after their final separation from the body, and remain till the resurrection; the one of which is a pleasant and delightful abode, where they enjoy converse with the angels; and the other a gloomy and dismal valley, where only devils reside; and that, while the soul is on its journey, it may be diverted from the evil road by the prayers and intercessions of the pious.

We have before observed, that Russia is indebted to Peter the Great for being enrolled among the polished nations of Europe; and, indeed, before him, an universal ignorance overspread the empire; but that illustrious monarch spared neither trouble nor expence to inspire his subjects with a taste for the arts and sciences; and, for this desirable purpose, he founded an academy of sciences, an university, and seminary, at Petersburg; besides a variety of schools in different parts of his empire, inviting the learned of every nation and persuasion to settle in his imperial city. These wise and laudable measures have been continued

continued by his successors; for the Empress Elizabeth erected an university and two seminaries at Moscow. The reigning empress, however, exceeds all her predecessors in the love of learning and learned men; she not only encourages, and even importunes, the society of the ingenious of every country, but sends some of the most promising young men in her own dominions to be brought up at all the universities of Europe. From hence, Russia will, no doubt, in time, become celebrated for literature as well as arms. The empire of learning, indeed, is yet far from being universal; and, as there are only three universities, Petersburg, Moscow, and Kiow, few, comparatively speaking, can reap advantage from these learned institutions. But the Russians are by no means deficient in genius; the productions of the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg not only tend to diffuse knowledge over their native country, but have been read with pleasure in foreign nations.

Not only literature, but all the mechanic arts and trades, are in a progressive state of improvement. Nor are these improvements entirely owing to the ingenuity of foreigners resident in this country; the natives themselves have been fired with an honest emulation, and in some instances have excelled their instructors. Agriculture, in its most improved state, begins to be well understood in several parts of this extensive empire. The manufactures of velvet, silk, linen, and woollen stuffs, are extremely flourishing; and copper, brass, iron, tin, steel, fire-arms, ammunition, cordage, sail-cloth, paper, parchment, and glass, are wrought with success. The Russian peasants, however, unable to avail themselves of the improved labours of others, are their own artificers, and manufacture every article their humble walk of life requires.

When a new Emperor is raised to the throne, the metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, with all the nobility and principal merchants, are summoned to Moscow against the day of coronation; when the archbishop of Moscow conducts the emperor to the church of Precheste, or Our Lady; where a scaffold is erected, covered with rich Persian tapestry, on which are placed three chairs, at equal distances from one another; one of which is filled by the emperor, another by the archbishop, and the third by the Imperial cap and robe.

When the sovereign enters the church, the clergy begin their hymns; after which the archbishop offers up his prayers to God and the tutelary saints, imploring their presence on that solemn day. Divine service being ended, the chief counsellor of the state takes the emperor by the hand, and presents him to the archbishop, saying—‘The knez and bojars acknowledge the prince here present to be lawful heir to the crown; and desire that, as such, you immediately crown him.’ Upon this, the prelate conducts the prince to the scaffold, and seating him in his chair, touches his forehead with a small diamond cross, at the same time pronouncing a benediction. One of the metropolitans then reads a prescribed form of prayer; after which the archbishop again blesses him; and, ordering the two metropolitans to take off the cap and robe, they place the former on the monarch’s head, while the archbishop pronounces—‘In the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost;’ and then adds a third benediction.

After this, all the prelates approach, and each of them gives the emperor his blessing. The Litany is then sung; at the conclusion of which, one of the metropolitans walks up to the altar, singing—‘God preserve the health of the emperor of all the Russias, whom he

‘hath of his love bestowed on us, and grant him a long and happy reign!’ This finished, the archbishop alone goes up to the prince, and tells him—‘That since, through the providence of God, all the states of the realm, as well ecclesiastical as temporal, have established and crowned him emperor of all the Russias, and entrusted him with a government of such importance, he ought to apply all his thoughts to love God, keep his commandments, administer justice, and protect and maintain the true Greek religion.’ He then bows down to the ground before the emperor, as a token of homage, in which he is imitated by all the ecclesiastics and nobles assembled. After these ceremonies are concluded, they dine together in the great hall of the Kremlin.

The titles of the emperor, at full length, are very pompous and sounding, specifying every particular country and province of which he is sovereign. The Imperial arms, since the reign of Iwan Basilowitz, have been Or an Eagle displayed Sable, holding a golden sceptre and monde in his talons; over the eagle’s head are three crowns; and on it’s breast it supports a shield with the arms of Moscow in the centre, encompassed by six others, which are those of Astracan, Siberia, Casan, Kiow, and Wlodimiria.

The Russian monarchy is absolute, and hereditary; but the succession is after a peculiar mode, sometimes depending on the pleasure of the reigning prince, and sometimes the senate and nobles make themselves arbiters in confirming and abrogating the will of their deceased sovereign. The present empress was elevated to the throne as wife of the emperor, and mother of the heir-apparent; and she has sufficiently justified the partiality of the Russians to her person by the splendor of her reign. In 1768, she assembled deputies from all the districts and provinces of her dominions, so as to form, in effect, a parliament of the empire; and presented them with instructions, containing her ideas of distributive justice, which reflect the highest honour on her public virtue. Indeed, a senate composed of the most respectable members of the empire still subsists in this country; but though they are personally treated with the highest regard and deference, and the weightiest matters are submitted to their deliberation, they seldom venture to dissent from the will of their sovereign, or to prescribe contrary to her known inclinations.

The Russian court has always been remarkable for numbers and magnificence, but all it’s ancient grandeur falls infinitely short of what it at present enjoys; being filled by the greatest men of the empire, who are obliged by titles of honour and distinction to pay a regular attendance, without any salary. The ancient titles of nobility, however, have been exchanged for those distinctions which are common to the rest of Europe, as preventatives against the revival of those ideas of power to which their original quality entitled them.

Peter the Great instituted three orders of knighthood; the first, that of St. Andrew, or the Blue Ribband; the second, the order of St. Alexander Newski, or the Red Ribband; and the third, a female one, called the order of St. Catharine, in honour of his consort.

The first officer of the empire is called the chancellor; subordinate to whom are the grand master of the household, the master of the horse, the treasurer, comptroller, chamberlain, tasters, harbingers, with a variety of inferior distinctions.

The revenues of this immense empire are variously estimated; some calculating them at
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sixty millions of roubles, and others at only twenty millions; but though they are at present far superior to what they formerly were, it is certain that they bear no proportion to the extent of the Russian territories.

The principal revenues arise from the annual capitation tax, to which the vassals of noblemen pay seventy copecs per man, the burghers an hundred and twenty, and the Tartars and other distant nations an hundred and ten: which tax is estimated at five millions of roubles.

From the demesne lands, which are occupied by near four hundred thousand peasants, very considerable sums arise; as also from inns and public-houses, tolls and customs by sea and land, salt-works, stamp-duties, law-suits, abbey-lands, and caravans, with many other inferior particulars.

The salaries of all the civil officers are paid out of the money received at their respective offices; and whatever surplus remains is faithfully transmitted to the treasury.

The standing army of Russia is supposed to consist of two hundred and fifty thousand men, besides an infinite number of irregular troops which may be raised on any emergency. The navy is now become extremely respectable; and, in some engagements against the Turks in the late war, the officers and seamen displayed a very considerable share of skill and bravery. Indeed, several British officers at this time enjoy principal commands in the Russian fleet, and have introduced their native discipline, which is as much the object of admiration as of terror to the rest of Europe. In time of peace the men of war are laid up at Revel and Cronstadt, and the galleys at Petersburg.

The high-admiral of Russia has the rank and pay of a general field-marshal; and the fleet is divided into three squadrons, commanded by an admiral-general stationed in the centre, bearing a white flag and crimson cross; the van has an admiral bearing a blue flag with a white cross; and the rear has another admiral bearing a red flag with a white cross. Each of these squadrons has a vice-admiral, rear-admiral, and three commodores; and when an emperor commands in person, his ship bears the royal standard of the empire, which is yellow, with the Russian arms displayed in the centre.

The Russian empire in Europe has been divided into various governments, each of which includes several provinces or circles; but as conquest has been continually extending its limits, these political distinctions have frequently varied. However, according to the latest divisions transmitted us, they appear to be as follow, Kiow, Woranesh, Afow, Bielogorod, Smolenski, Great Moscow, Novogorod, Nishny-Novogorod, Archangel, Wiburg, Peterf-burg, Narva, Revel, and Riga.

To particularize all the various nations which inhabit these respective governments, would far exceed the limits of any general work; nor, indeed, are we furnished with proper materials for that purpose: even the Russian government is but little acquainted with the customs or local situations of many people who owe it allegiance. However, as the Cossacs occupy a considerable extent of country, and are lately become famous in military history, some account of them may not be unacceptable to our readers.

The Cossacs are mentioned in history so early as the year 948; when they lived on Mount Caucasus, and were reduced under the Russian government in 1021. About the commencement

commencement of the sixteenth century, the Zaporog Cossacs fixed their habitations on the fertile and spacious plains along the banks of the Neiper. The Poles, foreseeing the advantages which would accrue to them from defending this people against the incursions of the Tartars, took them under their protection in the year 1562, and stipulated to pay them an annual subsidy, provided they would keep on foot a good body of troops for the defence of the Polish dominions; and, to engage them by ties of reciprocal interest, they resigned to them the entire possession of all the country which lies between the Rivers Neiper and Neister, and the Tartarian frontiers. The Cossacs made such progress in the cultivation of that luxuriant tract of land, that in a short time many villages and populous towns rose to enrich the prospect; while they kept the Turks under perpetual alarms by their incursions, but prevented the latter from making reprisals, by seizing on the islands of the Neiper, and fortifying them for magazines.

This alliance, though cemented by reciprocal interests, did not long subsist between the Poles and the Cossacs; for the former envying the latter the rich country they possessed, attempted to bring them under subjection: upon which the Cossacs, fired with honest indignation, had recourse to arms; and, having applied to Russia, and even the Ottoman Porte, for protection, a cruel and bloody war ensued, which for more than an age was kept up with the utmost fury and animosity, and terminated at last in the Cossacs remaining under the protection of Russia; and their former country being laid waste by the long continuance of their wars, they settled in the Russian Ukraine, upon their receiving assurances from that court that they should be exempted from all taxes, and that no innovation should be attempted in their political constitution. To compensate for these immunities, they stipulated to maintain a considerable body of troops for the Russian service. This treaty was soon after infringed; for, in 1708, Mazeppa, the Hettman, or Chief of the Cossacs, went over to Charles XII. of Sweden; upon which Peter I. of Russia resolved to prevent such revolts for the future; and, accordingly, after the battle of Pultowa, sent a strong detachment into the little islands of the Neiper, to which the Cossacs had fled with their families and effects, and inhumanly ordered them all to be put to the sword without distinction, and the plunder to be divided among his soldiers. He also ravaged their country, and sent many thousand Cossacs to the coasts of the Baltic, where they were compelled to submit to the severest drudgery.

In 1722, the office of Hettman was abolished, but restored again in 1750, when the Cossacs elevated to this dignity Count Rasumowsky, privy-counsellor of the Russian Empire, president of the Academy of Sciences, and lieutenant-colonel of the Ishmailow regiment of Life-guards; which election was confirmed by the reigning Empress Elizabeth.

The internal government of the Cossacs approximates very nearly those ideas we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nation chuse a chief, who resides at Circasky, and holds his office during life: he also acts as a superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by an officer who is chosen annually.

The Cossacs are divided into many tribes, but their manners bear a strong affinity to one another; and, indeed, the principal distinction between them arises from local and accidental

accidental causes. They all profess the Greek religion, are brave in war, and enthusiastic lovers of their original institutions.

The executive part of the Russian government was first regulated by Peter I. and put under the direction of the following supreme councils, offices, colleges, or chanceries.

First, The Senate, or Directing Council, which takes cognizance of all domestic affairs, receives accounts from all the colleges, issues out orders to the inferior courts, and is the supreme seat of judicature, to which all processes are brought by appeal, as their last resort.

Secondly, The Holy Synod, or Ecclesiastical Council, which has the inspection and regulation of all affairs relative to the church.

Thirdly, The War College, which superintends the recruiting and exercising the whole Russian army, except the guards, which are accountable to the sovereign alone. This office likewise receives the taxes appropriated to the maintenance of the troops, and nominates all the officers as high as lieutenant-colonels. Subordinate to this college, are the offices of the General Commissary at War, the Ordnance Office, the Military Chest, the Cloathing and Victualling Office, and the Accomptant's Office.

Fourthly, The Admiralty College, which has the entire direction of all maritime concerns; and such forests as are near navigable rivers are also under it's inspection. Dependent upon this are, the Office of the General Commissary of the Navy, which pays and victuals the fleet, and keeps the money assigned for those services; the Store Office, which has the superintendence of the magazines, and every thing relative to the equipment of ships of war; the office which directs the Building of Ships, and provides the requisite materials; and the Artillery Office.

Fifthly, The College for Foreign Affairs, which discharges the salaries of the Russian ministers at foreign courts, and the expences and pensions of foreign envoys. This college also makes out passports, and decides the difficulties and disputes which arise in relation to foreign ministers. The principal members of this college are the chancellor and vice-chancellor of the empire, who call in the assistance of the counsellors of state whenever any momentous affair falls under their consideration.

Sixthly, The College of the Treasury, which has the direction of levying all the public revenues, except such as arise from the capitation-tax and salt-works. The office which has the charge of the money arising from the conquered provinces, is at present held at Petersburg; but all the other departments of finance are at Moscow.

Seventhly, The State Office, which issues out the public money, and gives the necessary directions to the Chamber of Accounts; hence the Revenue Chambers both at Petersburg and Moscow are dependent on this office.

Eightly, The Salt Office, which has the direction of the revenues arising from the salt-works, the profits of which are appropriated to the sovereign's purse.

Ninthly, The Confiscation Chancery, which directs the sale of all forfeited estates, and the levying of all fines imposed by the other colleges.

Tenthly, The College of Trade, Mines, and Manufactures; which are distinct offices, having

having the regulation of the naval customs and tolls, and power to decide all disputes between merchants and traders relative to commerce.

Eleventhly, The College of Justice at Moscow, some of whose members likewise constitute a college at Petersburg, which determines all suits brought thither by appeal from the vanquished provinces, and has likewise a consistorial jurisdiction over religious dissenters from the established church.

Twelfthly, The Feudal Chancery at Moscow, which regulates every thing relative to the estates of private persons, and registers their boundaries and extent.

Besides these, there is a Revision College, which is a kind of check on the others; a College of Magistracy, to which all the magistrates of the empire are accountable for their conduct; and a Privy Chancery, as it is called, which takes cognizance of all hospitals, dispensaries, doctors, and medicines.

In this complex machine of government the utmost regularity prevails; and, indeed, the reigning empress has new-modelled or reformed every department of state which appeared inadequate to its original intention. In this empire, neither birth nor titles give a person rank, independent of merit; so that many foreigners of mean extraction have risen to the greatest honours, and enjoyed the most lucrative posts. Though all ranks are on a level, in regard to the unlimited subjection they owe their sovereign, the nobles behave in a very arbitrary manner towards the peasants, who are liable to be transferred, with their property, from one master to another.

For deciding causes between private men, the Russians have precedents and written laws, which were first published in 1649; but have been since revised, altered, and enlarged. The process is carried on in a summary manner, and the punishment inflicted is often severe, though not so barbarous as formerly, owing to the rapid progress which refinement has lately made in this country.

In private disputes, when proper evidence cannot be adduced, the judge asks the plaintiff if he will take his oath that the affair is exactly conformable to his representation of it, or if he will refer it to the oath of the defendant. When this point is adjusted, the person who is to swear is brought before a picture of some saint, where he is asked if he will make oath upon the salvation of his soul. If he assents, they give him a small crucifix to kiss, and afterwards the picture of the saint; but though this oath may be taken with the safest conscience, so much is the practice of swearing discouraged by the legislature, that the person taking it cannot be admitted to the communion for three years; and, if perjured, the mildest punishment is the knoute and banishment. Hence judicial swearing is avoided as much as possible: and if it were our business to run a parallel between this and other nations in the practice of swearing, we might perhaps trace many of our own corruptions to this source, of tendering oaths on every trifling occasion; and many of the Russian virtues to their abhorrence of a solemn appeal to Heaven, unless when compelled by necessity.

The common punishments in Russia are the battogen, katze, and knoute. The person who is doomed to receive the former of these inflictions, is stripped to the shirt, and laid upon the ground on his belly, one man being placed on his neck and another on his feet, who beat him on the back with small wands during the prescribed time.

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The katze, which was originally inflicted on those who, in violation of a public prohibition, ventured to take snuff, is performed by flitting the nostrils.

But the knoute is the most common, as well as the most barbarous punishment, that can well be inflicted on this side death; and an instance of it, which was executed on eight men and a woman for selling brandy and tobacco without a licence, is thus described by a very authentic historian. The executioner's man, after stripping them naked down to the waist, tied their feet, and took one at a time on his back. The executioner being provided with a bull's pizzle, to the extremity of which were tied three thongs of an elk's skin untanned, stood at a convenient distance, and drew blood at every stroke. The men received twenty-five lashes each; when an officer, who had the sentence before him, cried out—'Enough!' The woman, as soon as she had received sixteen lashes, fainted away. After this cruel procedure, they were all tied together by the arms, two and two; those who sold tobacco having a small horn filled with it, and those who sold brandy a small bottle suspended about their necks; and whipped through the city for near half a league; after which they were conducted to the scene of their first punishment, and then released.

The severe knoute, which is sometimes ordered, usually strips the flesh from the bones, and exposes the very vitals: many die under the executioner's hands; and, did not the Russians possess a degree of constitutional insensibility, it is certain that few of them could ever survive it.

For the first offence, a thief is only whipped from the prison to the market-place, where his ears are cut off, and he is afterwards imprisoned for two years; but for a second transgression, he is doomed to undergo the same flagellation as before, and is afterwards banished into Siberia. Theft, however, is never made capital in Russia; but both the receivers and concealers are equally punished with the principal.

Murder is punished with decollation. The criminal suffers a close confinement for six weeks, and is subsisted on bread and water alone; after which he receives the communion, and submits to his fate.

Before the reign of the Empress Elizabeth, who prohibited capital punishments, penal inflictions were numerous and severe. Even the enlightened and the wise Peter I. used to suspend robbers on the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, sometimes to the number of a thousand at once.

But though the severity of the original laws is now much mitigated, the unhappy debtor experiences a treatment inconsistent with humanity. He who is unable to pay his creditor at the stipulated time, is put into the hands of an officer appointed for that purpose, and has a certain time allowed him to make satisfaction. If, at the expiration of this period, he still remains insolvent, he is conducted to prison; from whence he is brought every day to a place before the Chancery, where the common executioner beats him upon the shin-bones, with a moderate-sized wand, for the space of an hour. He is then carried back to prison, except he can procure security for his appearance again the next day at the same hour, to undergo a similar chastisement. This is rigorously executed upon persons of all ranks, subjects and foreigners, men and women; and if at last the debtor is un-
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able to make retribution, he, his wife and children, are assigned over as bond-slaves to the creditor.

We shall now proceed to describe the principal cities, and other remarkable places, in the Russian empire in Europe; beginning, for the sake of regularity, with those which are most southern.

Kiow, the capital of a government, is a considerable city, situated on the Neiper, and said to have been founded by Kius, a Slavonian prince, in 430; but this account seems little to be relied on. History however informs us, that in the year 1037, Kiow was declared the capital of all Russia; and, till the twelfth century, continued to be the residence of the great dukes: after this it fell into the hands of the Poles; but in 1686 was again ceded to Russia.

This city is properly divided into three parts, the Old City, Podol, and the Castle of Petshersky, with it's suburbs.

Old Kiow is seated on an eminence facing the north; and, conformably to the mountainous nature of the country, it is fortified with horn-works. In this division stands the cathedral of the Greek archbishop of Kiow, Halitsh, and Little Russia, who resides in the convent of St. Sophia; to which, and that of St. Michael, most of the houses in this city belong.

Podol, the second division, is situated in a plain on the banks of the Neiper, consisting principally of shops, and the houses of tradesmen. It's magistrates are independent of the garrison, and receive their orders immediately from the War Office at Glucow. The Academy here is a superb edifice; and the University has a principal, two officers who superintend the conduct of the students, and nine professors, who are all monks, and enjoined to live in the most abstemious manner. They read public lectures, and the students perform their several exercises under them, as is usual in most other universities.

The castle of Petshersky stands on an eminence facing the south; and besides magazines, barracks, and other public edifices, includes a rich and stately monastery, founded in the eleventh century, having a number of subterraneous vaults, in which are deposited several undecayed bodies, supposed to be the remains of saints and martyrs. The suburbs of Petshersky are large and populous, containing, besides private buildings, several convents and churches. Paltowa, celebrated for the decisive victory gained by Peter the Great near this place over Charles XII. of Sweden, is situated on the River Worskla, and has a regular fort. The burghers, till lately, carried on a considerable trade to the Crimea, and through Poland to Germany, but it is now almost lost. It is built principally after the stile of the Cossack architecture, and contains but few structures of eminence: however, the above-mentioned victory will for ever render it famous in the historic page.

Woronesh, the capital of a government, is a large and populous city standing on a river which bears the same name. It is pretty well fortified, and is the residence of a governor, and a bishop's see. Most of the streets are covered with planks of timber, instead of a pavement. To maintain his sovereignty over the Black Sea, Peter I. erected a large dock for the building of ships, which drew many new inhabitants and foreign artificers to this city, which still carries on a very extensive trade.

Bachmut

Bachmut, a city in the government of Woronezh, is situated on a river of the same name, and is defended by a citadel and other fortifications, for the protection of the Imperial salt-works. The Salt-office at this place maintains a battalion of regular troops, besides a company of Cossacs. The surrounding country exceeds all the rest of Little Russia in fertility; and contains several spots which, it is supposed, would produce valuable ore.

Bielogorod, the head of a government, was built so early as the year 990, and stands on the River Donez. This city is divided into an Old and New Town, and is a bishop's see, with three suburbs. The Old Town is fortified with a rampart and moat, but the New Town is only surrounded with palisades.

The government of Smolensk has for it's capital a city of the same name; which, standing on the banks of the Neiper, is spacious and well-fortified, being the residence of the governor, and an episcopal see. It is famous in history for having been the subject of numerous disputes between the Poles and Russians, to whom it alternately fell.

Nishnei Novogorod is likewise a large provincial city, situated on the banks of the Wolga, at the influx of the River Oka. This town was built in 1222, and contains two cathedrals, twenty-eight parish-churches, and five convents. It is an archiepiscopal see, and has some regular fortifications. The trade of the inhabitants is very considerable, and their shops make a splendid appearance: the city, however, suffered much by fire in 1715, when some thousands of the inhabitants lost their lives.

Moscow, the ancient capital of the Russian empire, and the Imperial residence for many ages, is situated in the circle of it's own name, in 55 degrees 45 minutes north latitude, and in 38 degrees east longitude, distant about one thousand four hundred and fourteen miles north-east from London. It's site is on a pleasant plain, on the banks of the River Moskwa, which meandering through it's centre, contributes very considerably to the beauty of the place. Several gentle eminences, interspersed with groves, gardens, and lawns, enrich the prospect. Moscow is built a good deal in the eastern style, having few regular streets; and almost every edifice of consequence is accommodated with a garden of no inconsiderable extent. There are supposed to be sixteen hundred places dedicated to religious worship in this city; among which are eleven cathedrals, and two hundred and seventy-one parochial churches, the rest belonging either to convents or private persons.

The bells in this city are extremely numerous, as the Russians have from the first annals of their nation been vastly attached to great bells. One of these is of a most stupendous size, being four hundred and forty-three thousand seven hundred and seventy-two pounds weight, and was cast in the reign of the Czarina Anne; but the beam on which it was suspended being burnt, it fell, and was considerably damaged. All the superior churches have gilt spires, and are magnificently decorated with paintings; few of which, however, exhibit any traits of taste, genius, or just design.

The public edifices are very superb; and, with the squares, amount to forty-three. But the houses in general are far from being well built; and as the streets are in general unpaved, they are neither clean nor commodious.

This city is divided into four circles, the exterior including all the rest. The interior circle, or the Kremlin, which signifies a Fortress, contains the ancient Imperial palace,

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several pleasure-houses and offices, a victualling-house, the patriarchal palace, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish-churches, the arsenal, public colleges, and several other structures. All the churches in the Kremlin are highly ornamented with gilt or silvered spires; they are in the Gothic taste, but the profusion of internal ornaments is almost indescribable; the pictures of the saints, in particular, being loaded with gold, silver, and precious stones.

In the cathedral of Sobor there is a silver branch, with forty-eight lights, said to weigh two thousand eight hundred pounds; the remains of three archbishops are deposited in silver shrines; and in a gold box is a robe brought from Persia, which superstition regards as the identical garment worn by our Saviour at his crucifixion.

The royal dust of the Russian empire of the male line is deposited in the cathedral of St. Michael; while the princesses, with their consorts, are interred in the convent of Tshudow. This circle is three hundred fathoms in diameter, and is surrounded with very high and thick walls, flanked with towers, and mounted with cannon, besides the additional defence of deep moats and ramparts.

The egress from the Kremlin is over a magnificent stone bridge, which unites it to the second circle, called Kitaigorod, or the Chinese Town. This contains five streets, two cathedrals, eighteen parochial churches, four convents, and a considerable number of noblemen's houses: also several public edifices; particularly the Chief Dispensary, from which the whole empire is supplied with medicines; the Mint, a superb structure; a Magazine, in which all goods are deposited till they have paid duty; a Custom-house; Printing-office; Court of Judicature; Physic-garden; and the Exchange, in which are six thousand handsome shops. In this circle all commercial affairs are transacted; on which account it is principally inhabited by merchants, who carry on an extensive trade to China, and other places. This part of the city is likewise defended by a rampart strengthened by towers and bulwarks.

The third circle is named Bielogorod, or the White Town, from a white wall with which it is surrounded. Through this division of the city runs the River Neglina from north to south; but although some noblemen, and many eminent tradesmen, reside in this circle, the streets are in general dirty, and the houses mean: however, it includes no fewer than seventy-six parish-churches, seven abbeys, eleven convents, and nine public edifices; besides two palaces, a cannon-foundry, two markets, and a place called Basil Garden. At the Timber-market wooden houses are constantly exposed to sale, which may be taken to pieces, and put together again, at the pleasure of the purchaser.

The fourth and last circle is called Semlanoigorod, which incloses the three preceding parts, so that its ramparts include an area of very great extent. Formerly there were thirty-four wooden and two stone gates belonging to this quarter, but these last only now remain. This circle contains a hundred and three parish-churches, two convents, an imperial stable, an arsenal, a mint, magazine, and cloth manufactory. Round these grand circles lie the suburbs, which occupy a very large extent, and are built in the form of rural villages, except the German Quarter, which contains several handsome religious structures. To the west of this suburb lies the palace of Annenhof, adorned with a beautiful garden; and at a small distance stands the palace of the Czarina Elizabeth.

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The population of Moscow has been variously estimated, some making it amount to about an hundred and fifty thousand, while others contend that it is much less. Certain it is, however, that Moscow has been much on the decline since the seat of government was removed to Petersburg; and to this, likewise, several dreadful conflagrations, the last of which happened in 1752, have not a little contributed.

Jaroslaw, which lies within the government of Moscow, and is itself the capital of a circle bearing the same name, is a large and well-built city, having a good trade, and is particularly celebrated for it's manufacture of Russia leather. There is likewise a flourishing manufacture of all sorts of linen and flowered woollen stuffs; and some of the public edifices are built in a stile of architecture superior to the generality in this country.

The convent of the Holy Trinity is one of the most remarkable places in the district of Moscow, being the largest and best endowed of any in the Russian dominions. It stands about sixty wersts from Moscow; and being built in a quadrangular form, in the old Gothic taste, it is inclosed by strong walls, ramparts, and moats, always garrisoned by a company of soldiers. The convent itself is spacious, lofty, and elegant; the great church is extremely splendid, and has a stately tower; besides which, there are nine others, and a grammar-school, within the limits of the convent. But what will for ever render this place remarkable in history, is, that it afforded an asylum to Peter the Great, when the Strelitzes, spirited up by his sister Sophia, had determined on his destruction.

Archangel, the capital of a government bearing the same name, stands on the banks of the Dwina, about four miles from it's influx into the White Sea, in 64 degrees 34 minutes north latitude, and in 40 degrees 12 minutes east longitude. This city is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth; the houses being chiefly built of wood, after the Russian manner. The citadel, where the governor resides, is enclosed with a kind of rampart formed of large planks of timber; and, indeed, little elegance or taste is displayed in any of the edifices belonging to this place, either public or private, though it is a bishop's see, and both the Lutherans and Calvinists are indulged with their respective churches.

The English, in 1553, laid the foundation of the commerce of Archangel; and the advantages they derived from it soon induced other nations to endeavour to secure a share of it. However, Petersburg has entirely eclipsed it in trade, manufactures, and improvements; and in proportion as the one has been in a state of progressive prosperity, the other has suffered neglect.

In the government of Archangel a great part of Lapland is included, as well as the country of the Samoiedes, who possess the coast of the Northern Ocean both in Europe and Asia. These people have a language, religion, and customs, peculiar to themselves; their complexions and stature are dissimilar to those of the Russians in general; and the jurisprudence of the empire has never been sufficiently introduced into this inhospitable country. Samoieda, however, produces the finest furs in all the Russian dominions, which are bartered by the natives for such trifles as ignorance can alone hold in estimation.

Wologda is a large provincial city within the government of Archangel, and is the only place, except the capital, that deserves particular attention. It contains seventeen hundred

hundred dwelling-houses, seventy-two churches, two convents, and a German suburb. It has also two suburbs inhabited by sledge-drivers, which are pretty populous and extensive, and contain several religious structures.

This city, which is the see of an archbishop, was once very flourishing; but now it's commerce is principally confined to hemp, and matting made of the bark of lime-trees, which the natives convey in barques to Archangel, and bring back various articles necessary for domestic use.

Great Novogorod, the capital of the government of Novogorod, is an ancient, large, and famous city, seated on the River Wolcow, at it's efflux from the lake of Ilmen. This place, which still carries on an extensive trade, is the seat of the governor, and an archbishop's see. The buildings are in general mean, and ill-constructed; and, except some structures dedicated to religion, few of them deserve a moment's attention. This city, however, was first built in the ninth century, by the Sclavonians, and was a celebrated staple of the Hanse Towns till 1494, when it was so opulent, that it became proverbial — 'Can any one withstand God and Novogorod!' But Time, that brings the proudest structures low, assisted by repeated conflagrations and hostile attacks, has now scarcely left a vestige of it's ancient magnificence.

About the distance of two wersts from this city, stands St. Anthony's Convent, on the bank of the Wolcow; where St. Anthony, the founder, was interred in 1147; and besides his monument, which is still religiously preserved, his devotees shew a millstone, on which they firmly believe, and gravely assert, he sailed from Rome to this particular spot. Various other curiosities, whose origin superstition only could credit or report, are to be seen at the same place.

Having noticed the most remarkable cities in Russia Proper, we shall proceed to a description of those belonging to the conquered provinces.

Riga, the capital of Livonia, is situated in the 56th degree 53 minutes north latitude, and in the 24th degree east longitude from London, on the north-east of the River Duna; and though a place of no very considerable extent, is strongly fortified, populous, and commercial. The houses, which are handsome, and principally built of stone, are in general two stories high; but the streets are narrow and incommodious. The Lutheran religion prevailing throughout the whole province, there are a cathedral and four superb churches for persons of that persuasion, besides a seminary called the Imperial Lycæum, and the City Gymnasium, which are in a very flourishing condition. The castle is an ancient structure; but the citadel is strong, and the two arsenals are well stored with arms. But one of the principal advantages this city enjoys, arises from it's excellent harbour, which in the summer season is much resorted to by the English and Dutch, who purchase amazing quantities of flax, hemp, masts, and timber.

The Duna is generally frozen about the end of November, and open again by the middle of March: so that Riga has the advantage of an earlier communication with the sea than Petersburg itself, where the Neva is usually closed six weeks longer.

The privileges of this city, which were originally very considerable, were farther confirmed by the Czarina Anne. The supreme court of judicature for Livonia, and the high consistory

fiſtory, are held in this city, which is likewiſe the reſidence of the governor and general ſuperintendant.

Riga was founded in the year 1200, and ſoon after incloſed with a wall. It has ſuffered much by fires and ſieges, and has often changed it's maſters ; but, in 1710, it was obliged finally to ſubmit to the triumphant arms of Peter the Great.

Dort, which is likewiſe a town of conſiderable note in Livonia, was once a member of the Hanſeatic Confederacy, and is ſituated on a plain watered by the River Embec, in latitude 58 degrees north. This city was built in 1030, by the Great Duke of Ruſſia ; but, in 1191, it fell into the hands of the religious knights ; from which period it underwent a variety of ſieges, till the year 1704, when it was taken and plundered by the Ruſſians, and a ſhort time after, it's inhabitants were carried away priſoners of war, and the caſtle and fortifications blown up.

Since the peace of Nyſtadt it has begun to recover a ſhare of it's former conſequence, it's inhabitants have been increaſing, and many foreigners have been added to their number ; yet ſtill a variety of once noble edifices lie in ruins, and exhibit the moſt melancholy appearance. The preſent buildings are humble, compared with the ancient ones ; and the inhabitants, though numerous, are in general extremely indigent.

Revel, the capital of a government which bears the ſame name, is ſituated on the Baltic, in latitude 59 degrees 23 minutes, and in 24 degrees eaſt longitude ; which, though not of very extenſive limits, is an opulent, commercial, and well-fortified city. The private edifices are in general neat, and built of brick ; and there are ſeveral ſtately churches belonging to perſons of different religious perſuaſions. The Imperial ſeminary is furniſhed with four profeſſors in the arts and ſciences, and a teacher of the Ruſſian language. The magiſtracy have a ſhare in the tolls or cuſtoms, which are very conſiderable, and the reſt is paid into the treaſury. For enjoying this privilege, Revel maintains a number of matroſſes, and a company of ſoldiers. This city formerly made a diſtinguiſhed figure in the Hanſeatic Confederacy ; and, being favoured with a commodious and ſpacious harbour, great part of the Ruſſian fleet lies here in time of peace.

Revel is ſurrounded with lofty walls, ſtrengthened with baſtions, and a deep ditch ; and has, beſides, a caſtle built on a rock for it's defence.

Narva, which is the only other city of importance in this government, is ſituated on the borders of Ingria, on an eminence by the banks of the Narva, which diſcharges itſelf into the Gulph of Finland, about twelve miles from the city. This place ſtands in latitude 59 degrees 8 minutes north, and in 27 degrees 25 minutes eaſt longitude from London ; containing a number of elegantly-built houſes, and is excellently ſituated for trade. In the market-place ſtands a beautiful triumphal arch, erected in 1746, in honour of the late Empreſs Elizabeth. This city is well fortified, and maintains a ſtrong gariſon. The chief articles of exportation are flax and timber.

Narva has frequently felt the horrors of war ; and has, in turn, ſubmitted to different maſters. In 1700, when it was cloſely preſſed by the Ruſſians, the heroic Charles XII. raiſed the ſiege, after having defeated an hundred thouſand of the enemy with a handful of men. How-

ever, in 1704, the Russians again besieged and carried it by assault: since which time it has been annexed to the Russian dominions; but the inhabitants were continued in the full enjoyment of all their original rights and privileges.

In the province of Ingria stands Petersburg, one of the capitals of the Russian empire, whose present site was only occupied by two fishing-huts, till the year 1703, when Peter the Great having conquered the adjoining country, the commodious situation of this spot for the Baltic trade induced him to build a town and fortress, which project was put in immediate execution: his original intention, however, was only to make it a place of arms, where all kinds of military stores might be conveniently collected from the interior parts of the empire; in consequence of which, both the public and private edifices were only built of timber, and neither the dock nor the town had any other defence than a temporary rampart of earth. But the decisive victory at Pultowa, and the entire conquest of Livonia, inspired Peter with more sublime notions; and, to gratify a disposition which only gloried in surmounting difficulties which would have appeared insuperable to any other man, he determined to make this the capital of his empire, and to perpetuate his own name by conferring it on his intended city. No sooner was this design formed, than Peter ordered the castle to be built of stone, the Admiralty to be walled in, and all the other buildings to be raised in a handsome stile, and with durable materials.

In 1714, the council was removed to Petersburg; and a range of noble edifices were erected for the public offices, which four years afterwards were removed thither: the principal nobility, and most opulent families in Russia, were likewise enjoined to build houses and reside here. But private plans not answering the magnificent ideas of Peter the Great, he came to a resolution that the whole city should stand on the Island of Wafli, though many houses had been already raised on that of Petersburg: for this purpose the streets were marked out, canals were dug, piles were drove with incredible labour, the island was fortified with fifty-seven bastions, and the nobility were commanded to build their houses a second time; but the death of the emperor suspended the entire execution of his plan, and deprived the world of one of the most enterprising princes that ever dignified a throne.

The Russian nobility did not seem to entertain much predilection for this rising city; the surrounding country was far from being luxuriant, and provisions were dearer there than at Moscow: besides which, the last-mentioned city seemed to the generality of them to be better adapted for the seat of government, by being more central, more ancient, and more commodious.

Petersburg, however, under succeeding sovereigns, received many additional improvements; the grand designs of the founder were amply executed by the munificence of his successors; and it is now justly ranked among the largest and most elegant cities in Europe. It stands in latitude 59 degrees 57 minutes north, and in 31 degrees east longitude from London. The situation is pleasant, and the air salubrious, though the soil on which it stands is naturally low and marshy. It is about six English miles in length, and as many in breadth, but has neither walls nor gates.

Near Petersburg the River Neva is about eight hundred paces broad; but not having every where a proportionable depth of water, merchant-ships are cleared at Cronstadt, and

and the men of war built at Petersburg are also conveyed thither by means of certain machines called Camels. The Rivers Fontanca and Moica, which join the Neva at this place, contribute to the formation of those islands on which it stands; the city is also watered by several canals, the model in this respect being copied from Amsterdam. There is only one bridge over the Neva, which being constructed of large flat-bottomed boats, unites the dock-yard to Basili Ostrow, or Basil's Island. These boats are always removed before the commencement of the winter season, and laid down again in the spring. Between the other islands the only communication is by boats, which cross the water at stated times; however, there are bridges over the Fontanca and Moica, as well as over the canals which intersect the city.

There are computed to be upwards of nine thousand houses at Petersburg, about seven hundred of which are of stone, the rest being built with timber, after the Russian manner. There are twenty Russian churches, besides religious edifices belonging to almost every nation in Europe. But as this city well deserves a more minute description, we shall gratify our readers with an account of the principal places that attract the attention of every traveller; beginning with the Island of Petersburg, which stands both in the centre of the Neva and of the city.

The Isle of Petersburg is formed by the Great and Little Neva, and the Newka, being about two leagues in circumference. The fort is of an hexagonal form, built according to the modern stile of fortification, and defended with a great number of cannon. In its centre stands an elegant church, where the remains of Peter the Great, his consort Catharine, and several other persons of the royal family, are deposited in magnificent mausoleums. In the high and beautiful tower of this church, which is covered with gilt copper, hangs a very musical set of bells with chimes, made in Holland, which always play at twelve o'clock. Facing the Imperial palace, on one of the bastions of the fort, a flag is constantly displayed, charged with the Russian Eagle. As this fort stands in the middle of the city, it serves not only for defence, but for ornament; and is occasionally employed, both as a prison and an asylum.

The whole Island of Petersburg is extremely populous; but the houses, churches, and public edifices, are in general unworthy of a traveller's attention: however, there is still to be seen on this island the small wooden house which Peter the Great ordered to be built, and in which he resided himself the first time he arrived on the spot where the city now stands; and, that it may remain as a lasting monument of that circumstance, it is surrounded with a stone-wall, and kept in constant repair.

The Little Neva separates this island from Wasili, or Basil's Island, the largest of them all, which is surrounded with the Great and Little Neva. The greatest part of this island is covered with woods; but there are twelve spacious streets, of uncommon length, running in a direct line, and intersected at right-angles by six cross streets, which are unpaved. The vistas from these streets are very broad and beautiful at both extremities, the largest extending the whole length of the island. Opposite to Petersburg Island, and adjoining to the Hemp-Warehouse, are the Exchange, the Custom-house, and the Quay where the merchant-ships unload. Contiguous to these are several extensive structures belonging to the Imperial

Imperial Academy of Sciences, founded by Peter the Great in 1724, with an endowment of more than twenty-four thousand roubles annually. The same monarch likewise intended to erect an Academy of Polite Arts; but as no estimates were made of the necessary charges attendant on such an institution, the late Empress Elizabeth augmented the above endowment to nearly fifty-four thousand roubles.

This academy consists of two grand divisions; the first constituting the Academy, properly so called; and the second the University. The members of the former devote themselves to the discovery of new inventions, or improving those of others, and have nothing to do with the tuition of youth, unless they voluntarily engage in it. The University has its distinct professors, who read lectures in the sciences, both in the Latin and Russian languages. A difference of religious opinions is no disqualification to a professor; but they are restricted from propagating any doctrines pointed against the Greek Church. Among the edifices belonging to the Academy, are the Imperial library, a museum, the printing-house, a bookfeller's shop, apartments for book-binding, letter-founding, painting, and engraving, and the room where mathematical instruments are constructed. Near this room is the famous copper globe of Gottorp, eleven feet in diameter, which stood on one of the towers of the Academy; which, with the tower itself, was almost destroyed by fire in 1747, but has since been repaired with admirable skill. By ascending a few steps, the globe is entered through a small door, and within stands a table, with benches round it, on which twelve people may conveniently sit. The external surface of this globe represents the terrestrial ball, and the internal the celestial canopy.

The other most remarkable places on this island are the Fire-work Theatre, raised on piles, and the State College; near which last place is a spacious and elegant structure, formerly belonging to Prince Menshikows, where the corps of cadets of noble families are educated gratis, according to their rank.

The Admiralty Island is by far the most magnificent part of the city, containing, besides a number of elegant private houses and superb palaces, several public edifices; such as the Victualling Office, the Galley Dock, a place called New Holland, and the Rope Walk. The Admiralty, or Dock-yard, is strongly fortified with a wall, and bastions mounted with a number of guns; and every ship entering the harbour is obliged to salute it. The top of the Admiralty tower is gilt, and makes a very noble appearance.

Near this place stands the Imperial Winter Palace, a large square structure three stories high, having behind it a spacious area, in which is a noble equestrian statue of brass gilt, erected in honour of Peter the Great. Adjoining to this, along the banks of the Neva, are several other palaces; among which is the Old Imperial Winter Palace, the New Playhouse, and a most delightful summer-palace, which being built of wood, and only one story high, resembles a pleasure-house. Behind it are several stone buildings, in which the officers belonging to the court reside: it is adorned with a fine orangery, and a beautiful garden, most admirably decorated with grottos, fountains, and water-works, with an infinite variety of marble and alabaster statues, brought from Italy. Two of these statues, representing Faith and Religion, appear to have their faces covered with thin transparent veils, and are much admired by connoisseurs. The dock itself affords a double vista,

one

one to the Russian church of the Ascension, the other terminated by the convent of Alexander Newski. From hence the beautiful buildings on both sides the Fontanka have a delightful appearance. The streets lying behind the Admiralty and the Imperial Summer-palace are very superb and magnificent; but are much excelled by Great and Little Million Street, which are embellished with the most capital buildings. At the end of Million Street stands a curious dispensary, belonging to the emperor: near which likewise lie the Imperial stables, and the dwellings of the officers who superintend them, the church of the Swedish Finlanders; the German Lutheran church, which is a handsome structure; the Menagery, the Park, and the Elephant Yard.

The Moscovite Side, as it is called, stands on the continent, and is in general very well built. In this quarter are the Court Victualling-office, the private Dock, the Foundry, the Fire-work Elaboratory, the Aqueduct, the Barracks for the Horse-guards, a structure called the Pleasure-house, the Italian Garden, the Moscovite Jemskoi, the German Lutheran church, three Russian churches, and the convent of St. Alexander Newski, built in honour of that devout prince, in the singular form of an eagle, but not yet compleated. In the center of this religious edifice stands a large and beautiful church representing the Eagle's Body; the two towers, it's Neck and Head; the spire, the Imperial Crown; and two small churches on each side, the Two Wings. The remains of St. Alexander are said to be deposited in this convent, for which the Empress Elizabeth ordered a silver shrine to be made.

With respect to the modern palaces and other structures in this city, it is proper to observe, that they are in general in the Italian stile of architecture, and full of windows, a quality which seems but ill adapted to the severity of the climate.

It is impossible to particularize all the various branches of manufacture and articles of commerce in this flourishing city; suffice it to say, that this is the mart for purchasing all the commodities of Russia, and that there is a ready vent for all such goods as are wanted throughout the empire.

Exclusive of Russians, it is difficult to determine to what nation Petersburg is most indebted for it's inhabitants; and, indeed, the diversity of nations and languages, fashions and customs, discernible here, are truly astonishing. The citizens, properly so called, are not very numerous, but the whole number of inhabitants are estimated at two hundred and fifty thousand. The splendor of the court is conspicuous among all ranks, who imitate it as far as their abilities will admit. As in other large cities, the morals of the people are very depraved; and the suspicious vigilance of the government renders it extremely prudent for a stranger to be circumspect in his words and actions: foreigners, however, enjoy all possible liberty of conscience; but neither the plans of government, nor the articles of the Greek religion, are suffered to be the objects of their animadversion.

In summer, private carriages or boats are the usual methods of conveyance from one place to another in this extensive city; but no sooner is the winter set in, than near three thousand Russians repair with their sledges to Petersburg, where they stand in every street, and may be hired at the rate of five-pence sterling an hour: within which space the horse,

if required, will go upwards of seven miles. Most housekeepers have sledges of their own, and persons of distinction are driven by postillions.

About eight leagues from Petersburg stands Cronstadt, on the Island of Retusari, which lies in the Gulph of Finland, about two leagues from the coast of Ingria. The town was built by Peter the Great, and is pretty large and populous; the streets are broad and well-paved, but the original plan has never been entirely compleated. The Imperial palace, which with some other buildings makes a superb appearance on the Ingria side, is now uninhabited, and falling to decay: besides two principal and several dependent Russian churches, there is a Lutheran church, which used to be resorted to by an English congregation.

This place is well defended by a surrounding wall, planted with great guns, a citadel, and the fort of Cronshlofs, at a small distance from the town, on the Ingria side. Cronstadt is furnished with three harbours, all of them commodious, safe, and capacious; the principal of which lies towards the east, where the greatest part of the Russian fleet is laid up: indeed, this place was intended to be fitted up by Peter the Great for repairing his large men of war, by cutting a stone-canal of an extraordinary breadth and depth, containing several separate docks; but this grand project was never compleated till the reign of the late empress. This princess extended the canal to the length of two wersts and fifty fathoms; the exterior sluice of the dock to the sea being four hundred and seventeen fathoms, and the water may be raised to the depth of twenty-four feet by means of two large sluices. The canal, when full, is one hundred feet on the surface of the water, and at the bottom about sixty in breadth; the outward and inward wall, both of the canal and mole, being hewn out of the solid rock. At the extremity of the canal is a deep basin lined with stone, intersecting the former at right-angles, and intended as a reservoir for the water of the canal when the docks are to be emptied. This grand and beneficial work is unparalleled in any part of the known world.

Near the Gulph of Finland, and directly opposite to Cronstadt, is the beautiful palace of Oranienbaum, erected by Prince Menzshikow; a most magnificent edifice, delightfully situated.

On the coast of Ingria stands the Imperial seat called Peterhoff; which, since the time of Peter the Great, has been continually receiving the utmost embellishments of art: the house itself cannot be ranked among the number of regular edifices; but the beauty of the situation, the elegance of the gardens adorned with fountains which throw up vast columns of water to an immense height, the number of grottos, groves, and cascades, all give this place a title to vie with Versailles itself. The palace stands on a hill about sixty feet high, having an extensive and noble prospect of the cities of Petersburg and Cronstadt, and of the Gulph of Finland.

At a small distance from Peterhoff stands an Imperial palace, built in the water, called Strelenhoff, which was erected by Peter the Great, whose sublime genius conceived a noble plan for making this one of the most superb palaces in the universe; but his grand designs have never been fully put in execution.

In the vicinity stand likewise the palaces of Catharine, Anne, and Elizabeth, which occupy

occupy some of the finest spots on the banks of the Neva, but are not very remarkable for their architecture or furniture.

In Carelia, or the Government of Wiburg, which country was finally confirmed to Russia by the peace of Nyfstadt in 1721, are some few places of importance.

Wiburg, once the capital of Carelia, an episcopal see, and the natural bulwark between Sweden and Russia, is situated on the Gulph of Finland, and has a convenient harbour, with an extensive commerce. Peter the Great having obtained this town by capitulation in 1710, added greatly to it's natural and artificial strength; so that now it may be justly considered as a barrier of the Russian empire.

Wilmanstrand, seated on the Lake Saima, was once a considerable place, and the residence of a Swedish governor; but it is now principally celebrated for an obstinate battle fought in the vicinity, on the 23^d of August 1741, between three thousand Swedes and sixteen thousand Russians; when the former were at length obliged to submit to superiority of numbers.

Frederichsham, situated on the Gulph of Finland, had formerly it's proper magistrates, and was defended by a strong castle, and furnished with a commodious harbour; but in the last war between the Swedes and the Russians it was burnt to the ground: however, it was afterwards rebuilt; and the limits of the Russian dominions on this side terminate very near it.

In this government are several other towns; but none of them claim particular notice, except Kexholm, a strong town, situated on two small islands, at the influx of the River Woxen into the Lake of Ladoga; and Nyfot, standing on the Samian Lake, which is a modern town, built only in 1745; the castle of which standing on a rock in a river near the town, is extremely well fortified both by art and nature. This last place has stood several memorable blockades, and has alternately fallen into the hands of the Swedes and Russians; but, by the treaty of Abo, was at last guaranteed to the latter.

Russia affords a variety of articles for commerce; and, as the exports of this country far exceed it's imports, the balance of trade is considerably in it's favour. The commodities for exportation are fables and black furs; and the skins of foxes, ermines, hyænas, linxes, squirrels, bears, panthers, wolves, martens, wild-cats, and white hares: also, Russia leather, copper, iron, isinglass, pitch, tar, tallow, linseed-oil, train-oil, resin, honey, wax, pot-ash, hemp, flax, thread, calimancoes, linen, sail-cloth, mats, castor, Siberian musk, soap, feathers, caviar, and some medicinal drugs.

The fishery of foals, morfes or sea-horses, cod and stock-fish, sturgeon, and salmon, are likewise important articles of exportation.

The goods imported into Russia consist principally of silks, cottons, and woollen-stuffs; fine linen, chintz, toys, brandy, wines, spices, and hardware. About thirty years ago, the value of exports from Petersburg amounted to three millions one hundred and eighty-four thousand three hundred and twenty-two roubles, while that of the imports was two millions nine hundred and forty-two thousand two hundred and forty-two roubles; of which, the value of two millions two hundred and forty-five thousand five hundred and seventy-

seventy-three roubles was exported to England, and the value of the commodities imported from thence amounted to no more than one million twelve thousand two hundred and nine roubles.

The Russians were perfectly unacquainted with the manner of exchange till about the year 1760; at which time money was so scarce in Russia, that foreigners were obliged to barter their goods for those of this country. The foreign merchants then resided at Moscow, but kept factors and warehouses at Archangel: however, in 1721, Peter the Great ordered Petersburg to be the seat of commerce; where magazines were erected at the expense of government, in which merchants deposit the goods consigned to them.

As in other countries, the merchants and traders of Petersburg consist of natives and foreigners; the former of whom may sell either by wholesale or retail; but the latter by wholesale only, and that to none but the natives. The foreign traders, in general, are only factors, who are entrusted with large capitals; and who, without running any risque, often amass large fortunes.

All foreign merchandize is commonly sold at twelve months credit; but the Russian commodities must be paid for on delivery, except the natives find a difficulty in vending their stocks, when they will condescend to barter goods for goods; but, in general, they insist on having a considerable part of the value in specie. Lately, indeed, foreign merchants have dealt for Russian commodities by contract, and have even advanced money some months previous to the delivery of the goods; which negociations, for the greater security of individuals, are entered in the Custom-house books.

As early as the reign of the Czar Iwan Basilowitz, about the middle of the sixteenth century, the English enjoyed several considerable privileges in trade; and, by a treaty of commerce concluded between Russia and Great Britain in 1742, it was stipulated that the English should be allowed to send goods through Russia into Persia; but a Captain Elton, an Englishman, having engaged in the service of Nadir Shah, the Russians put a stop to this trade, in which they were assisted by the intestine troubles of Persia. We, however, still carry on an extensive trade with Russia, and import all sorts of woollen manufactures, lead, tin, pewter, dyeing-woods, and various other articles; for which they take, in return, hemp, flax, linen, train-oil, pot-ash, wax, tar, rhubarb, and caviar.

Next to us, the Dutch carry on the most considerable trade to this country; and, as bills at Petersburg are drawn on Amsterdam only, the traders of other nations, who give commission for purchasing Russian commodities at Petersburg, are either obliged to procure credit, or to have proper funds at Amsterdam.

No nation in the world seems more inclined to commerce than Russia is at present; but so much chicanery and artifice prevail among the mercantile line, that a foreigner, in his transactions with them, ought to use every precaution.

Russia has some weights peculiar to itself: such as a solothnic, which is one-sixth of an ounce, and of which ninety-six make a Russian pound; a pud, or pood, which is equivalent to thirty-six pounds avoirdupois; and a berkowetz, which is equal to ten puds. The other Russian weights are similar to those of Germany.

The measures of length are, the arshine, or Russian ell, equal to twenty-eight and one-tenth

tenth inches English; a werfoc, which is one-sixteenth of an arshine; and a sarshan, or fathom, which contains three arshines.

The Russian coins are, the Imperial ducat, which is of gold; and the rouble, the largest silver-coin, whose value rises and falls according to the course of exchange; it's intrinsic worth, however, is about four shillings and sixpence sterling, or a hundred copeiks. The inferior silver coins are halves, quarters, and tenths, of roubles.

Of copper-coins, here are the copeik, about a halfpenny value; the denga, equal to half a copeik; and the polushka, equal to a quarter of a copeik.

But, besides these coins, there are several others current in the conquered provinces; as well as some foreign pieces, such as ducats, Holland rix-dollars, and Alber dollars, which find a ready circulation.

CHAP. II.

DENMARK.

UNDER this head we shall include Norway, and all the other continental parts of his Danish majesty's dominions; giving an account of their inhabitants, customs, curiosities, and jurisprudence, as we proceed; and reserving only a description of the islands in the Baltic, belonging to this crown, for the insular division of Europe.

Norway, which obtains the name of Norge from the Danes and Norwegians, has the North Sea for it's boundary on the south and west; Swedish Lapland and Sweden on the east; and the sea called the Categate on the north; being situated between the 57th and 72d degrees of north latitude, and between the 4th and 15th degrees of east longitude.

The air of Norway is in general pure and salubrious, but particularly so in the internal parts; and it is even said that many of the natives taste of longevity till they no longer regard existence as a blessing.

The climate varies according to it's proximity to the sea and northern situation. At Bergen the winter is generally more temperate than at Hamburgh, Amsterdam, and other places of more southern latitude. The eastern parts of Norway, however, are generally covered with snow; and the cold sets in with intense severity about the middle of October, and continues to the middle of April; during which period, the largest rivers are arrested in their course by the frost; and the very saliva no sooner drops from the mouth, than it rolls along the ground like hail. But even frost and snow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land; and the wise and bountiful Creator of the universe has bestowed on the inhabitants of this inhospitable climate a greater variety of preservatives against the cold than most other countries afford. Extensive forests supply them with fuel; the wool of their sheep, and the furs of their wild beasts, furnish them with cloaths and coverings for their beds; the innumerable flights of birds afford them down and feathers; and even the very mountains, abounding in caverns, serve as a shelter

against the sharpness of the winds. At Bergen, the longest day consists of about nineteen hours, and the shortest of little more than five. During some part of the summer, the inhabitants can read, write, and transact any business, throughout the whole night; and, in the most northerly parts, the solar orb is perpetually in view. In those regions, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon, for an hour or little more, owing to the reflection of the rays of the sun upon the mountains. Nature, nevertheless, has been propitious to the Norwegians in this respect too; for, in the midst of their gloomy season, the sky is so serene, and the moon and Aurora-borealis are so bright, that they carry on their fisheries and other trades without any auxiliary light.

The shores of Norway are in general steep and rocky, but abound in gulphs, creeks, and harbours; in many of which ships may ride at anchor without any possible danger.

This being one of the most mountainous countries in the world, the arable land is but of small extent, which obliges the natives to procure more than half their subsistence from the sea. Hence the villages are few, and the houses lie scattered among the vallies, and some of them on precipices, which strike terror into every stranger who approaches them.

A chain of hills divides this country from Sweden, running from north to south through it's whole extent; some ridges of which are perhaps the highest ground in Europe: but, besides these, mountains every where intersect it's surface, from which rivers and cataracts descend, which being only passable by wooden bridges of a very tottering fabric, render travelling here both terrible and dangerous. The rugged cliffs, impending rocks, and deep capacious caverns, which every where present themselves to a traveller, almost check the ambition of enquiry, and allay the passion of curiosity. Yet the activity of the natives, and the risks they run to recover a sheep or a goat which has made a false step, are almost incredible: on such occasions, a peasant never hesitates to venture his life: he descends from the top of the mountain by a rope some hundred fathoms in length, with his legs over a cross-stick, till he sets his feet on the place where he finds his lost property; when, fastening it to the rope, it is drawn up together with himself. This dangerous expedient is generally used with only one person to hold the rope; and instances have occurred where the assistant himself has been drawn down, and perished with the principal adventurer.

When a man or beast suffers the dreadful misfortune of falling down a very lofty precipice, it is remarked that the air presses with such force against their bodies, that they are not only deprived of all life and sensation before they reach the ground, but even their bellies frequently burst, and their entrails drop out.

Within the bowels of some of the Norwegian mountains are some beautiful species of marble, and a vast quantity of the magnet or loadstone; and the asbestos has been frequently found, of which incombustible linen and paper have been fabricated. The caverns, too, which occur in these mountains, though not so liable to observation, deserve the attention of the curious more than those in any other part of the globe: one of them, called Dolfsteen, was visited, in 1750, by two clergymen, who reported that they proceeded in it till they heard the waves rolling over their heads; that the passage was as wide and lofty as a common church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; and that, after advancing

vancing a great way, they descended a flight of natural steps; but coming to a second flight, they became intimidated, and returned.

Norway formerly produced gold; but the expence of separating it from the ore being greater than the profits, the mines have fallen into neglect. Silver mines, however, particularly those at Kongsborg, are extremely advantageous; and one of the many silver masses which have been discovered is deposited in the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, and weighs 560 pounds. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common throughout the country; as well as those of quicksilver, sulphur, vitriol, and allum.

Though this country lies far towards the north, it produces rye, barley, oats, peas, vetches, hops, hemp and flax, with many roots for culinary uses, and a considerable number of hardy flowers. There are likewise several sorts of fruits, such as cherries, berries of different species, and some peaches, apricots, and grapes; but these last seldom attain to a tolerable state of maturity. Apples and pears, however, are very plentiful, but are all of those kinds which ripen early; for winter fruit seldom comes to any perfection, unless an extraordinary mild season intervenes.

Besides the domestic animals common to the rest of Europe, Norway contains many creatures peculiar to itself; among which we may enumerate the elk, the rein-deer, the hare of various colours, the rabbit, bear, wolf, lynx, fox, glutton, ermine, marten, beaver, and lemming.

The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, in shape somewhat resembling both the horse and the stag: it is perfectly harmless; and, when constrained by hunger, becomes tame and domestic: its flesh is reckoned good, and tastes like venison.

The rein-deer, which have been already in part described, will be farther noticed in the account of Lapland.

The Norwegian bears possess vast strength and sagacity, are remarkable for never attacking children, and are hunted by a small species of dogs: their hams are preferred by some to those of Westphalia.

The wolves, unless impelled by extreme hunger, never prey upon cattle, and the natives are very dextrous in taking them; by which means the breed is kept low, though it can never be quite exterminated, on account of the numerous caverns and holes in the mountains, in which they find an inaccessible shelter.

The lynx, though smaller than the wolf, is more destructive to the cattle: it frequently digs under-ground, and undermining the sheep folds, makes dreadful havock. The skin of this animal is both beautiful and valuable.

White and red foxes abound in this country, whose skins are likewise much esteemed: they are remarkable for the same craftiness which distinguishes them wherever they are found; and particularly for a method they have of catching crabs, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab laying hold of, is dragged ashore.

The glutton receives its name from its voracious appetite; and somewhat resembles a dog, having a long body, thick legs, and sharp claws and teeth; he is so bold and ravenous, that he will devour a carcase much larger than himself; and, when fully gorged, unburdens his

his stomach by squeezing himself between two trees. His skin is variegated, and so delicate that he is shot with blunted arrows.

The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its timidity and cleanliness; the value of whose skin is too well known to render any account of it necessary.

The marten is likewise hunted for the sake of its skin. In shape and size this creature is almost the same as the large brown forest-cat, only its head and snout are sharper, and it is of a much fiercer nature.

The lemming is a most pernicious species of vermin, though not so large as a rat; its tail is short, and turned up at the end; and its legs are so short that they scarcely keep its body from the ground. The colour varies much, but the hair of all is extremely soft. About once or twice in the space of twenty years (says the learned Bishop Bergen) they rush in prodigious numbers from their secret abodes, like the messengers of Heaven, to punish the neighbouring nations. The Rock of Kolen, which divides the Norland Manor from Sweden, seems to be their native place; from hence they march in such multitudes through Norland and Finmark to the Western Ocean, and through Swedish Lapmark to the Bothnic Gulph, that they overspread considerable tracts of land, every where leaving desolation behind them. They always march in a direct line, carrying their young upon their backs; and, if opposed by the peasants, resolutely face the enemy, barking like dogs. This calamity, however, is but of short duration; for, on entering the sea, they swim till their strength fails them, when they at once sink.

With respect to the reptiles of this country, they are not very numerous, except in the southern parts; nor is the bite of any of the serpent race so dangerous as in warmer climates.

The ornithology of Norway well deserves the attention of the naturalist. No country produces a greater variety of birds: for, besides the common poultry, it abounds with nightingales, larks, quails, partridges, starlings, wrens, magpies, storks, herons, gulls, owls, ravens, cormorants, falcons, eagles, and many others.

The alks, a species of birds which build their nests on the rocks, often darken the air with their numbers, and the noise of their wings resembles a storm; they are about the size of a duck, and their flesh is much esteemed.

The Norwegian cock of the wood is of a black or dark-grey colour; his eyes are like those of a pheasant, and he is said to be one of the largest edible birds.

The Norwegian eagle is of two kinds, the land and sea: the former is so strong, that he has been known to carry off a child two years old, and to attack several large and powerful animals, as well as birds, on which he indiscriminately preys. The sea-eagle, which is larger than the other, chiefly subsists on aquatic food; and has sometimes been known to dart on large fishes with such impetuosity, that not being able to disentangle his talons from their bodies, he has been dragged under water, and drowned.

The great northern diver is a sea-bird larger than a goose: its neck is long, the upper part of which, as well as its beak and feet, are black; but from the breast downwards it is white. The wings are so short, that it can hardly raise itself from the ground; and its legs stand so far back, that it is but ill qualified for walking, and therefore seldom

dom ventures ashore. This bird has a bag under each wing, in which it deposits a single egg, which is hatched in that situation with as much facility and security as the eggs of other birds in their nests on shore.

The Norway black-cap is a beautiful little bird, about the size of a wren, with a black and yellow body, white belly, and black head. These birds are very numerous and tame; and so fond of meat, that they enter houses in search of it, where they are caught like mice.

The Scandinavian seas and lakes abound more plentifully in fish than almost any other part of the world. Here are whales of various kinds, porpoises, sword-fish, sharks, sturgeon, salmon, salmon-trout, turbot, cod, thornback, rock-fish, flying-fish, whittings, carp, gurnet, flounders, mackerel, herrings, plaice, bream, anchovies, eels, and many others common to the European coasts.

Some species of fish, however, merit particular attention. Among these are the fin-fish, a species of shark, about ten fathoms long, whose liver alone will yield several casks of oil; the tuella-flynder, of the turbot kind, but vastly larger, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen overboard, to prevent him from rising; the sea-devil, a fish about six feet long, which receives its name from its monstrous appearance and voracious appetite; and the sea-scorpion, which is likewise of a frightful form, its head being enormously large in proportion to its body, and its bite is said to be poisonous.

But of all the extraordinary creatures produced in the ocean, the ink-fish, called otherwise the sea-gnat, is none of the least, though its size generally runs from only nine inches to two feet in length. The head contains two large eyes, and the mouth bears some resemblance to the beak of a bird; above which stand two long horns of an octangular form, covered with a number of small prominences about the size of a pin's-head. Behind the head two other horns project, of the same shape, but much larger. The body itself is round, resembling a small bag, and is blunt at each end. On each side of it are two skinny membranes, with which the animal can cover itself; but, what is still more extraordinary, the fore-part of the body is filled with a fluid of so fine a black, that it may serve to write with. When these creatures are in danger, they discharge this fluid; which blackening the surrounding waters, renders them invisible, and favours their escape. Any of this fluid dropped on the hand, immediately burns like a caustic.

The Norwegian seas are not only famous for the variety and peculiarity of their fish, but they likewise produce creatures whose existence has been for ages deemed chimerical. The sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, is no longer regarded as a poetical illusion. One of these creatures was shot in 1756 by a master of a ship; its head resembled that of a horse, its mouth and eyes were large and black, and from its neck hung a white mane. It floated on the surface of the water, and lifted its head a considerable way out of the sea; between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, and its entire length was upwards of a hundred yards. These serpents are said to have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason mariners generally provide themselves with quantities of this drug, to prevent their being overfet. In short, the peculiarities of this animal would exceed belief, if the facts relating to them had not been attested in the most solemn manner.

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A very respectable writer informs us, that in 1734 a very large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high above the surface of the sea, that its head over-topped the main-mast of a ship which was passing by; that it had a long sharp snout, broad paws, and spouted water like a whale; that its body seemed to be as thick as a hog's head, and its skin variegated like a tortoise-shell.

Mermen and merwomen are likewise said to hold their residence in the Scandinavian seas; but we should perhaps be reputed dealers in the marvellous were we to relate all that has been advanced concerning them. The kraken, or korven, seems really to stagger all human belief, when we are told that its bulk exceeds a mile and an half in circumference; and that, when it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sand-banks, on which fishes disport themselves, and sea-weeds grow. We are informed that, in 1680, one of the young of this species perished among the rocks of the coast of the parish of Alstahong; and that such a stench issued from its putrid body, that the channel where it died was rendered impassable. But, without venturing to pronounce whether the existence of this creature is real or chimerical, we shall only observe that many of those objects which fall under our own senses would appear incredible to foreigners; while the peculiarities to be met with in other countries, though undisputed by the natives, would only be regarded by us as fables calculated to amuse.

The Norwegians are generally of a good stature, well-proportioned, and of florid complexions. They are characterized as being lively, active, ingenious, and brave; capable of enduring the greatest hardships; and inured to cold, want, and fatigue, from their very childhood.

The women are handsome and good-natured, possessing the greatest simplicity and innocence; particularly in the country, where their manner of life, and the meanness of their estates, preclude the indulgence of vice, by denying the means of temptation. Every master of a family in this country is an universal artizan; he supplies his family with every necessary of his own manufacture, being hatter, hosier, shoemaker, taylor, tanner, weaver, carpenter, smith, and joiner. Indeed, in the northern parts of Europe, except in cities, there are few who confine themselves to one profession; and in Norway in particular, the meanest peasant not only practises all the mechanic trades, but has likewise some taste for the polite arts, among which poetry meets with distinguished pre-eminence.

Their fare is as humble as can well be conceived; but, ignorant of the luxury of happier climes, and esteeming their own country as the most desirable in the universe, they never indulge the restless desire of change, or pant for delicacies of which they never partook.

To supply the place of bread or farinaceous food, they are often reduced to extraordinary shifts, grinding the bark of the fir-tree, and incorporating it with oatmeal. Fish, however, is the principal support of the natives on the sea-coast; with which sort of food Providence has most amply favoured them. The catching of birds, too, affords many of them a good maintenance; but it is impossible to give a just idea of the fatigue and danger they undergo in searching for the birds in high and steep rocks, which they either ascend by climbing, or are let down from the top of by ropes.

Agriculture,

Agriculture, in this country, is but a secondary consideration, the arable land being confined to narrow spots, among barren rocks, fenced by mountains: but the husbandman feels a satisfaction here which is unknown in many climates; for he does not toil for an oppressive landlord, but is sure to reap the fruits of his labour. His sterile fields are endeared to him by being his own; and when he eyes the impending cliffs, he congratulates himself on his natural and political security.

The Norwegians who inhabit the towns on the coast in some measure assimilate their dress and manners to the established modes of the rest of Europe; but the peasants pay little attention to any particular fashion; their breeches and stockings being generally of one piece, and their waistcoats having wide loose jackets thrown over them, both of coarse cloth. They wear flapped hats, or little circular caps, the seams of which are adorned with black ribbands. They have shoes of a particular construction, without heels, consisting of two pieces, the upper-leather fitting close to the foot, and the sole being united to it by a number of plaits and folds.

But though the general modes of dress among the Norwegians seem to be accommodated to the climate in which they live, yet in many instances they outbrave the inclemency of the weather, the peasants being seldom provided with any covering for their necks and breasts.

The houses are chiefly built of fir and pine-trees, the trunks of which are only reduced with an axe, to make them lie close. In the country, the dwellings stand at a considerable distance from one another, having their respective farms lying round them.

The natives of all ranks are celebrated for their courteousness and affability, particularly to strangers. Hence a traveller meets with every accommodation gratis, and even his acceptance of favours is regarded as conferring an honour upon his host.

The principal trade of Norway consists in the exportation of masts, timber, deal-boards, oak-planks, copper, and wrought and unwrought iron; several kinds of dried fish, furs, and hides; oil, pitch, tar, allum, salt, and pot-ashes. The articles of importation may in general be considered as luxurious rather than necessary; among which we may particularize wines and spirituous liquors.

The established and almost the only religion professed in this country is Lutheranism; except in the province of Finmark, where there are still a considerable number of Pagans, notwithstanding the prodigious labour, hardship, and expence, which have been undergone for their conversion. In the year 1607, a new hierarchy, or church-government, was established, in which the Bishop of Christiana takes precedence of all other ecclesiastics. Subordinate to the bishops, are provosts, preachers, chaplains, and curates, with several inferior church-officers.

King Olave is said to have been the first legislator of this country: but succeeding monarchs altered the laws of Norway, as they judged necessary; till, in the reign of Christian V. a new digest was drawn up, and published in 1687, the substance of which is taken from Denmark, with only some local and useful variations.

The chief officer of Norway is called Vice-Stattholder, who is president of the Supreme Court of Judicature at Christiana, the general tribunal of all Norway; to which

an appeal lies in all causes from the inferior courts in this kingdom: with liberty, however, to remove to the Supreme Court at Copenhagen.

There are four general governments; two of which, Christiana and Christiansand, lie in the south, and Bergen and Drontheim in the north part of the kingdom.

The ecclesiastical divisions likewise follow the civil; and, as the general governments are subdivided into prefectures or fiefs, the dioceses are subdivided into provostships and parishes.

The government of Christiana is the largest in the southern part of Norway, and by far the richest. Its principal city is Christiana, which is large, regular, and commercial; where the governor and bishop reside, and the General and Provincial High Courts are held. Christiana is situated in 59 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and in 10 degrees 15 minutes east longitude.

In this government lies Kongberg, a flourishing town, containing no less than ten or eleven thousand souls, and famous for its silver mines, which were first discovered in 1623; when the town was immediately built, and peopled with German miners. In 1751, forty-one shafts and twelve veins were wrought in the four reviers of this mine, in which three thousand five hundred officers, artificers, and labourers, are usually employed. The rich ore is found only in dispersed strata and interrupted veins: sometimes pure silver is dug out of it; and, in 1647, some gold was found among the silver.

The mines are situated in a mountain between Kongberg and the River Jordal; but the silver ore extends its veins for some miles throughout the adjoining districts, as is evident from the new mines which have from time to time been opened in different places, and carried on with success.

The most ancient and rich mine is known by the singular name of Old God's Blessing, and has sometimes, within a week, yielded several thousand pounds weight of rich ore. The astonishing depth of this cavity strikes every beholder with terror and amazement, being no less than one hundred and eighty fathoms perpendicular. In this subterraneous abode, fires on all sides are burning, and continually fed, to mollify the stone in pursuing the veins; and the swarms of miners, covered with soot, and dressed according to their respective employments, exhibit no bad representation of the idea generally conceived of the infernal regions.

Frederickshall, situated in 55 degrees 26 minutes north latitude, is a famous frontier-town towards Sweden, and famous for the defences it has made at various periods; but particularly for that memorable one in 1718, when Charles XII. of Sweden was shot dead in the trenches he had raised against it.

Frederickstadt lies about 34 miles from the last-mentioned place, and is a considerable town, the inhabitants of which trade in timber. From its natural situation, and the combined efforts of art, it is now deemed one of the most important fortresses in Norway. Several successive monarchs have favoured it with peculiar immunities, and been at unlimited expence in completing its fortifications.

The general government of Christiansand lies on the southern extremity of Norway, and is bounded by the government of Christiana on the north; and on the east, south, and west,

west, by the North Sea. This province is in general fertile in corn, and watered by some considerable rivers abounding with cataracts.

The principal city is Christiansand, situated on the eastern coast, in latitude 59 degrees north, and is the residence of the general, governor, and bishop. This city was built by Christian IV. from whom, and the strand occupied by it's scite, it received it's name. The houses are elegant, the streets broad, and the whole has an appearance of regular grandeur: the situation is extremely favourable for trade, being surrounded on three sides by water, while the other unites it to delightful meads and rising mountains.

The only other place deserving notice in this government, is the small town of Arndal, situated on a rock in the midst of the River Nid: it is furnished with a commodious wharf, and the inhabitants carry on a very extensive foreign trade. The greater number of the buildings stand on the acclivity of the rock; and the church in particular possesses such a lofty situation, that there is an ascent to it from the town by a vast number of steps cut out of the solid rock. Many of the houses are built on piles in the water, the streets being formed by bridges of boats, which enable the natives to pass from house to house.

The government of Bergen occupies a large extent, including seven districts, and an equal number of provostships. The country is populous, and well cultivated where nature will permit; but, being in general covered with rocks and mountains, agriculture has few opportunities of exerting itself.

The capital, and indeed the only city of eminence in this government, is Bergen; which, for trade, opulence, and population, is justly entitled to the first rank in Norway. It is situated in 61 degrees 11 minutes north latitude, in the midst of a spacious valley, on the side of a bay, called by the inhabitants Waag. This city is built in a semicircular form, and receives an almost impregnable fortification from nature as well as art, being encompassed on the land-side by lofty mountains, whose defiles are absolutely impassable to an enemy; and, towards the sea, the harbour is protected by various strong and regular works. The religious and public edifices, with a number of private dwellings, are constructed of stone; but the rest are of wood, according to the Norwegian taste. This city formerly contained thirty churches and convents; but the number is now reduced to four, three of which are Danish, and one German.

Among the public structures, the Castle is remarkable for being a most noble and durable piece of architecture; nor is the Cathedral School, founded in 1554 by Bishop Petrus, and patronized by Frederic II. greatly inferior in these respects. The Seminarium Fredericianum also deserves notice; being a noble foundation, where moral and natural philosophy, the mathematics, universal history, and the Latin and French languages, are carefully taught. The Navigation School, too, was once extremely flourishing, but is now much fallen to decay.

It is impossible to enumerate all the various articles of this city's trade; but, in general, they consist of fish, tallow, hides, and timber, for which returns are usually made in corn and foreign commodities.

Beyond this lies the general government of Drontheim, the most northern province of Norway, and by far the most extensive, as it reaches to Lapland. A range of islands extends

tends from north-east to south-west, between which and the continent runs a large bay, called West Fiorden. Among the islands is a singular kind of current or whirlpool, called the Moskoeftrom, from the island of Moskoe adjoining, in 68 degrees north latitude. The roaring of this current is scarce equalled by the loudest and most dreadful cataracts, being heard at many leagues distance. For about a quarter of an hour, at the turn of high and low water, it's violence seems to be at a stand, and fishermen venture upon it with their boats; but the impetuosity soon returns, and gradually increases, till a vortex is formed, which absorbs every thing that comes within it's attraction. This circumstance has led many persons to conjecture that these waters are swallowed up in an abyss, which, penetrating the globe, discharges them in some distant quarter; but, from the deepest researches of the most learned and ingenious philosophers, this conjecture appears to have no foundation in truth. The present generally received solution of this phenomenon is, that the collision of the waves, rising and falling at the flux and reflux, against a ridge of rocks and shelves which confine the waters, precipitates them like a cataract; and the higher the flood rises, the deeper must be the fall, which naturally produces a vortex.

This whirlpool is of great extent and depth; and, if a ship comes within it's influence, she is instantly absorbed, and dashed to pieces against the rocks at the bottom. Imagination, indeed, cannot well conceive any fate more dreadful, than to feel one's self irresistibly drawn to the verge of a vortex, which is open to devour; and even whales, when they find themselves overpowered by it's violence, fill the air with the most lamentable howlings. When the fury of the stream is heightened by a storm, it's attraction reaches more than six English miles; and several vessels have been lost in it, when the unhappy crew thought themselves far from the reach of it's force.

The principal city in this government is called Drontheim, standing in the 64th degree of north latitude, about two hundred and sixty miles north-east of Bergen. It is almost surrounded by the River Nid, and contained formerly ten churches and five convents. The cathedral was a stately edifice built of marble, but was in a great measure destroyed by fire in 1530. The other principal structures are the Cathedral School, the Seminary of Missionaries, an orphan-house, and an hospital. This city is defended by Fort Christianstein, and the Castle of Munkholmen; which last stands on a rock in the middle of the harbour, and proves an excellent fortification towards the sea. The principal trade carried on here is in timber, fish, tallow, and copper.

To the governments above described, we may add the province of Wardhus, which includes Norwegian or Danish Lapland, and is three hundred and ten miles long from east to west, and about two hundred in breadth from north to south. This large tract of territory, from it's northern exposure, is neither fertile nor populous, and contains only one town, from which the government receives it's name. The peculiarities of the natives of Lapland, and a local description of the country, will be introduced with most propriety when we treat of Sweden, to which government the extensive regions of Lapland are principally subject.

But, before we return to more genial climes, we shall take a cursory survey of Greenland, which is a kind of appendage to the Danish crown.

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The extent and dimensions of this country are entirely unknown, nor has it yet been determined to which quarter of the globe it properly belongs. The coast, as far as it has been traversed, extends from 60 to upwards of 80 degrees north latitude. The west coast was discovered in 1585 by Captain Davis, an Englishman, from whom the straits which run between the continent of North America and Greenland receive their name. The east-side of Greenland, which lies opposite to Iceland, is entirely unknown, and inaccessible on account of the mountains of ice, which rise to an astonishing height, and have been accumulating for ages: the west-side, however, has been pretty well explored; but as the coast is defended by rocks, and the main land consists of little more than barren cliffs, whose summits are perpetually covered with snow, adventurers only are at the trouble of visiting it.

But where the Danish colonies have been established, the climate is by no means intolerable, though the weather is variable, and in general severe. During the summer season, which lasts about three months, the sun shines bright and warm, and the sky is seldom shaded with a cloud; but the winters are prodigiously severe, the wind blowing over mountains covered with undissolved snow, and the clouds being filled with icy particles.

This description of seasons, however, is applicable only to the southern parts of this country subject to the Danes; for, beyond the 68th degree of latitude, the brumal cold is so intense, that the strongest spirits will freeze close by the fire. From June till August the sun is continually above the horizon; and, consequently, during that period, there is one continual day: but in winter, the sun is invisible to the Greenlanders; and, during several melancholy months, they have only morning and evening twilight to relieve the tedious gloom.

In the southern parts of Greenland, angelica, scurvy-grass, wild rosemary, and several esculent herbs and flowers, are found; but scarce a tree of any kind is to be seen, and only a few solitary shrubs are dispersed here and there, whose shrivelled appearances indicate the sterility of the soil.

What minerals the mountains may contain is yet unknown: rocks of asbestos, however, are common; and some mountains consist of an imperfectly formed marble, which the natives form into kettles and other domestic utensils.

A few animals are produced on the main-land, such as hares which change their colour, a species of rein-deer, a variety of foxes, and some white bears. The only domestic animals are dogs which never bark, and which are so exceedingly timid as to be wholly unfit for the chase. These creatures, however, if not tamed when young, become very mischievous; but, as their flesh is esteemed excellent food, the Greenlanders kill and eat them. They likewise use them in their sledges, yoking sometimes ten of them together, and driving at the rate of sixty miles a day on the ice.

Neither snakes, nor any other venomous creatures, can exist in this unpropitious clime; nor are the natives molested with any other species of reptiles, either noxious or disagreeable. However, there are plenty of fowl; almost every species known in Norway being common to Greenland, besides some few which are peculiar to this country.

The fresh-water fish are wholesome and delicious, and the rivers furnish them in great

great profusion and variety; but the seas of Greenland are still more prolific in fish of almost every species, particularly whales, which swim in large shoals. This species has several distinct peculiarities from every other tribe of aquatic animals, their internal parts resembling those which belong to the land. They respire with lungs, copulate like quadrupeds, bring forth their young alive, and suckle them with milk.

Whales are of several kinds, but they may properly be reduced to two classes; such as have apertures in the head, and such as have lungs for respiration. Some of the former have two apertures, others only one; but those who respire through the nostrils are seldom seen.

The first species may likewise be divided into those with plain and those with prominent backs. The flat-backed Greenland whale is thick and unwieldy, its head taking up one-third of its whole bulk, and it is in general from sixty to seventy feet in length; the side-fins being from five to seven feet long, and the tail about three or four fathoms broad. When this creature is in danger, it turns upon its back, and brandishes its tail, which it is dangerous to approach. The skin is in general black and smooth, but in some places has a variegated hue: under it lies the rind, which is near an inch thick; between which and the flesh is the fat, which is sometimes twelve inches thick. The flesh is dry, and extremely red, resembling that of a horse. In the upper-jaw on both sides lie the spicula, or whale-bone, serving the purpose of teeth, some of which are eight feet long: of these are generally two hundred and fifty on each side, so that the whole amount to five hundred. The tongue of the whale is extremely fat, and of itself is sufficient to fill several casks; but, notwithstanding the enormous dimensions of the other parts, the eyes are no larger than those of an ox, and are seated in the hind-part of the head, and fenced with eye-lids and eye-brows. This fish is remarkably quick of hearing, though it has no external ears; being furnished with a black spot under the upper-skin, behind the eye, under which a narrow duct seems to convey the sound to the tympanum. These creatures commonly bring forth only one at a birth, though sometimes they have two. Their usual food is a small black round insect, of which the whale sucks in prodigious swarms, and afterwards grinds them with its spicula.

The fin-fish is equal to the whale in length, but not in thickness, and receives its name from a fin running along its back. This creature spouts water even higher than the whale, and is extremely nimble as well as strong.

The narval, or sea-unicorn, is chiefly remarkable for its long horn, which grows straight forwards from the middle of its upper-jaw, curiously wreathed, and terminating in a point. With this horn, which resembles ivory, it attacks the largest whale, and strikes with such violence, as to penetrate the side of a ship. This horn has been sometimes deposited in the cabinets of the curious, and shewn for that of the unicorn.

The xiphias, or sword-fish, is likewise common to the Greenland seas, and receives its name from its sharp-pointed jaw, which bears a strong resemblance to a sword. These fishes are of a slender form, but of considerable length; and such is their inveteracy against the whale, that they pursue him with great eagerness, and frequently dispatch him.

Among

Among the amphibious animals of Greenland, are the morse, and the seal. The morse, which is of the size of an ox, has a thick round head, short neck, and four feet: its eyes look red and fiery, its ears are small, and from its large nostrils it spouts water like a whale. Its skin is thick and hairy, and the upper-jaw contains two long teeth of the most beautiful whiteness, and more esteemed than ivory. This creature possesses great intrepidity, and resolutely endeavours to overset the boat whenever it is attacked. The seal is about the size of a calf: these creatures are of various colours, all of them having very smooth hairy skins. The old ones make a noise like the howling of a dog, and the young ones answer them in tones which resemble the bleating of lambs. Seals are extremely beneficial; their flesh serving the Greenlanders for food, their skins for cloathing and boats, their entrails and membranes for sails and windows, their ligaments for thread and cords, and their bones for a variety of domestic utensils.

In their persons, the Greenlanders of both sexes are in general short, plump, and well-proportioned. The contour of their faces is flat, their complexion a reddish brown, and their hair black and lank. Neither surgeon nor physician find employment among them; nor, indeed, are many distempers known, except the scurvy, for which scurvy-grass and a few other simples are generally administered.

The natives dress themselves in the skins of deer, seals, and birds, formed into coats or jackets, with hoods covering the head and shoulders, tight breeches, and large seal-skin frocks, dressed so as to repel the rain, thrown over the whole. A linen shirt, however, or one made of seals guts, is commonly worn under this frock, to assist in keeping the rain from the under-coat; and, since their intercourse with the Danes and Dutch, the Greenlanders have adopted the mode of wearing worsted stockings of various colours, with shoes and boots of tanned seal-skin, whereas they formerly used only seal-skin stockings.

The dress of the females has little variation from that of the men, only they affect more finery and neatness in the form. They braid their hair, tie it up in a very becoming manner, and generally go bare-headed. However, the criterion of female dress consists in wearing glass-beads, corals, and pendants; as that of beauty is supposed to lie in making black streaks on their faces, necks, and arms, by passing a needle with a blacked thread under the skin. Disgusting as this custom may render the Greenland fair in the eyes of Europeans, the natives esteem it the most bewitching embellishment; and are weak enough to assert, that those who neglect this ornament will have their heads turned into tubs to hold train-oil, and be placed under the lamps that burn in the land of souls.

Every Greenlander has a summer and a winter residence; the latter of which is dug deep in the earth, and only raised a little above the surface with stone and turf. On one side of this hut are the windows, which are made of seals guts dressed and sewed together; on the other side are benches raised half a yard from the ground, which serve as beds, the skins of seals and rein-deer being used for cloathing. A large lamp is placed on the hearth, over which a kettle is suspended, for the purpose of boiling their provisions; and round the walls a number of lamps are kept perpetually burning, which affords a very tolerable heat without any apparent smoke. The smell of these lamps, however, with that

of the various sorts of raw-meat, fish, and fat, piled up together in these gloomy abodes, renders them intolerably offensive to all but the natives. In these winter retreats the Greenlanders continue from October till May, when they exchange them for tents of a conical form, with double coverings, impervious to the rain.

The principal qualifications required in a wife, are, skill in domestic affairs, and dexterity in making garments; while, on the other hand, nothing so much recommends the suitor, as intrepidity, activity, and success, in hunting and fishing: the Greenlanders, however, entertain a very delicate idea of marriage; and, in general, take but one wife. They are fond of their offspring to the most culpable excess, and think they can only shew a sufficient partiality for them by granting unlimited indulgences.

Fishing and hunting constitute the principal avocations of the men, their whole subsistence depending on these employments. The boats in which they row out to sea, and which contain only one man, are extremely liable to overset: they are commonly about six yards long, but very narrow, and sharp at both extremities; being made of thin narrow boards, fastened together with whalebone, and covered with seal-skins.

But, when the whale-fishery is the object, the boats are made large enough to carry forty or fifty men; on which occasions they put on their best apparel, from a strange notion that the whales would avoid them if they were meanly dressed. When they have found a whale, they strike him with a harpoon fastened to a seal-skin line, the extremity of which has a whole seal-skin inflated like a bladder; which, should the whale be wounded and dart away, by keeping above water, causes him to be more easily found. When he is quite worn out by loss of blood, and it is no longer dangerous to approach him, they dispatch him with spears and lances, and then leap into the sea, and cut away the fat all round the body.

As the Greenlanders are strangers to trades, arts, and sciences, they have neither any knowledge of money, nor do they understand the principles of commerce: to live is their only aim; and, as life may be supported at a small expence, they are satisfied with what the God of Nature has put in their power, nor make larger demands on his bounty.

When they assemble together on festive occasions, the Greenlanders express their social joy by drumming, singing, and dancing. From their very dawn of reason they are accustomed to an unbounded liberty; and neither pride nor property has taught one to consider himself as superior to another: hence little regard is paid to those ceremonies which are known in other countries by the name of politeness; yet they are free, open, and chearful, in conversation, and seldom guilty of any flagrant acts of indecorum. Illicit love is seldom heard of among them, though the intercourse of the sexes is kept up without even the smallest restraint. Theft, rapine, and violence, the arts of fraud and deception, an envious, cruel, and quarrelsome disposition, with all the hideous list of defects which wealth and avarice are apt to introduce, are scarcely known by name. Community of possession is nowhere so universal as in Greenland; the aged or infirm are generously supported; and even strangers usually experience the most engaging hospitality.

Yet

Yet these people, whose morals in general would do honour to any religion, have but a very confused idea of a Supreme Governor of the universe; and they have scarcely a word in their language to express such an Almighty Intelligence: notwithstanding which, they profess their belief in the immortality of the soul, and are of opinion that when the hand of death disunites them from corporeal matter, they are immediately admitted into the land of spirits, where hunting constitutes the felicity of endless ages.

However, they ascribe a supernatural, though not a perfect power, to a spirit whom they call *Torngarsuk*, of whom the *angakuts*, or soothsayers, form very whimsical ideas; representing him under various terrestrial images, one of which is that of a bear. To this spirit they assign an abode in the lower regions of the earth, where constant sun-shine and plenty of game contribute to his felicity. They maintain, also, that a spirit resides in the air, to whom they give the epithet of the *Restrainer*; pretending that, by his providential care, they are prevented from the commission of evil, and the approach of danger.

But of all the superstitious opinions this simple race indulges, none are more singular than their conceptions of the celestial bodies. According to them, the moon was once a young man, and the sun a young woman his sister, with whom he was familiar in the dark; but that the lady, being desirous to find out her paramour, rubbed her hands with foot, with which she stained his white bear-skin coat, and from this circumstance they account for the lunar spots. The sun, flying from the incestuous embraces of her brother, ascended the air, whither the moon followed her, and still continues to pursue, without being able to overtake her.

The admeasurement or computation of time is entirely by months, years and weeks being entirely unknown. The first month commences from the time the sun first rises above the horizon in winter, from whence the moons are counted, in order to know the exact season when the fishing of various aquatic animals, or catching of birds, ought to begin. According to the Greenland system of astronomy, the heavens revolve round the point of a prodigious rock, behind which the sun, moon, and stars, retire, when invisible.

Their language possesses several peculiarities, which render it's acquisition very difficult to strangers, yet it contains many elegant phrases and significant expressions; and it is not a little extraordinary that the natives possess no contemptible talent for poetical composition, though the frozen regions in which they live might naturally be supposed to damp the inspirings of genius, and to extinguish the enthusiasm of imagination. Their poems are principally of the lyric kind, the harmony of which depends both on rhyme and quantity, a sensible regularity being observed in the number of syllables of which their verses are composed, and an evident regard to cadence even in their elocution. Some specimens have been translated into other languages; and neither the conduct nor the sentiments of these pieces would disgrace the literature of more polished nations.

The Danish Society for the Propagation of the Gospel have zealously endeavoured to promulge the Christian doctrines through this country, and have not been unsuccessful in their object. Mr. Egede, one of their missionaries, lived fifteen years in Greenland; and, with the most laborious application, made himself master of the language, of which he published a dictionary,

dictionary, and translated the Four Gospels into the Greenland tongue. By his solicitation, on his return to Copengagen in 1736, a seminary was founded in that city for the education of able missionaries.

The Copenhagen Company engrosses the little trade of this country, the Dutch being prohibited from coming within several leagues of their colonies. The commodities exported from hence are whale-blubber, whalebone, the skins of rein-deer, bears, seals, and foxes, which are bartered for linens, coarse woollen-cloth, cutlery, and various domestic utensils in copper, brass, and tin.

Returning from these polar regions, we shall enter upon the description of the continental part of Denmark Proper, which consists principally of the Peninsula of Jutland, part of the Dutchy of Holstein, with the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst in Germany. The islands belonging to this government may be seen in the insular table of Europe.

Jutland is divided into north and south, and is the Cimbrica Chersonesus of antiquity. This large peninsula is bounded by the Baltic on the east; by the North Sea on the north and west; and, on the south, it is separated from Holstein by the Rivers Elder and Lewen. It is computed to be two hundred and forty-seven miles long, and an hundred and fourteen broad.

North Jutland is the largest of all the territories of Denmark Proper, and yields the greatest revenue, though many parts of it are composed of heaths and moors; yet these afford excellent pasturage, and maintain a great number of neat cattle, sheep, and goats. These barren tracts, however, are principally situated in the centre of the country, while the other parts are extremely fertile, as is apparent from the immense quantities of grain usually exported from hence to Norway, Sweden, Holland, and other countries; as well as prodigious droves of horses, oxen, and hogs; whence Jutland has frequently obtained the name of the Land of Bacon and Bread. Fresh and salt-water fish are also very plentiful in the surrounding seas and lakes. The chief bays and gulphs are on the east side of the peninsula, one of which is called the Gulph of Lymfurst, which flows from the Categate, ninety-five miles within land; besides which there are several other inferior gulphs forming excellent harbours.

The largest river in Jutland is called Guden; which, rising in the government of Arhuse, receives above forty tributary streams; and, after having run a course of an hundred and twenty miles, falls into the Categate.

The face of the country is every where diversified with hills, covered with woods, and abounding in game. The air is in general extremely salubrious; but, towards the North Sea, it is somewhat piercing and severe.

In their persons, the Jutlanders are robust and hale, in their dispositions resolute and daring, and in their situation blessed with superior freedom to that of the other subjects of Denmark. Even many of the peasantry possess freeholds, for which they only pay a small acknowledgment to the lord of the soil.

The Danish language is spoken here with less purity and propriety than in the other provinces,

provinces, the Jutlanders being easily distinguished from the other subjects of the Danish dominions by the peculiarity of their accent.

North Jutland is at present divided into four general governments, or dioceses, each of which has its governor-general and bishop. They derive their names from their respective capitals; and, beginning with the most northern, we shall first mention Albourg.

This government includes a large tract of North Jutland, and is divided from the rest by the Gulph of Lymfurf. Its length is about ninety miles, and its greatest breadth is nearly proportionable.

Albourg, the capital, is a large, populous, and ancient city, and in opulence is only inferior to Copenhagen itself. It is situated in 56 degrees 35 minutes north latitude, and is well watered by two considerable streams. This city contains several elegant edifices, both public and private; particularly a royal palace which was erected by Christian V. but is now become the seat of the governor-general. The harbour is safe, deep, and commodious, but the entrance is somewhat difficult. The principal manufactures of the place are woollen goods, originally of royal establishment; but, for want of the attention and support of government, they are far from being in that flourishing state which might be expected. Indeed, this government owes more to the spirited exertions of the amiable Count Roncellen, than to all the care of government: his improvements have diffused a spirit of industry through the country in which he lives, his encouragement of commerce has augmented his own revenues, and been beneficial to thousands; and what Peter the Great of Russia was in public, the Count of Roncellen may justly be allowed to be in private life. Like him, he has raised a town on his own estate, introduced the arts among his tenants, and taught even the face of nature itself to wear a new aspect. In this place we may remark, with the utmost propriety, the extensive influence of great and good precedents. Did the great but apply their talents and fortunes to promote laudable undertakings and encourage the toil of industry, they would not only discharge their duty more faithfully to mankind, but even be considerable gainers by their benevolence.

The next general government is Wibourg, the length of which is near sixty miles, and its breadth fifty; being the least of the four districts into which North Jutland is divided.

The only place deserving particular notice is Wibourg, the capital of all North Jutland. It is situated in 56 degrees 18 minutes north latitude, and in 9 degrees 20 minutes east longitude; almost in the centre of the country, near the Lake Asmild, which is copiously stocked with fish. This is one of the most ancient cities in Denmark; but, before the Reformation, was far more populous and extensive than at present. It is still, however, an episcopal see, and the seat of a provincial court of justice.

The general government of Arhus borders on the Gulph of Wibourg, extending about seventy miles in length, and forty in breadth. The soil is uncommonly fertile, and the inhabitants annually export a vast quantity of grain.

Arhusen, the capital, stands in 56 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, in a delightful plain, which is bounded on one side by the sea, and on the other by a lake. It is a large, populous, and pleasant place, and contains a considerable number of elegant public structures.

In this government stands the ancient palace of Scanderbourg, situated in a most charming country, and encircled with woods and water. In this palace the kings of Denmark have occasionally resided ever since the establishment of the Christian religion in this country.

The general government of Ripen is about an hundred and forty miles in length, and fifty in breadth; being the most extensive of any of the four general governments, but neither proportionably populous nor fertile. The soil is, indeed, in many places abundantly fruitful, but the whole province is interspersed with hills and barren wastes.

The city of Ripen, the capital of the government, is situated in the 55th degree 36th minute north latitude, and in the 9th degree 10th minute east longitude, on the banks of the Nibs-Aa. This was anciently one of the most famous and flourishing towns in the north: ships resorted to it from almost every country of Europe, and it even possessed the privilege of coining money; but the ravages of war, conflagrations, and other dreadful accidents, have ruined it's former splendor, and entirely wasted it's opulence. There are still, however, some small remains of trade; but the river on which it stands being now only navigable for small craft, it can never recover any considerable share of commerce.

Fredericia is a modern town, situated on the Great Belt, and is the only fortified place in North Jutland. It's design takes up a considerable extent of ground; which, however, is neither well filled with buildings nor inhabitants; though Christian V. by charter, in 1682, rendered it an asylum for bankrupts of every description, whether natives or foreigners.

Kolding, a small town situated on the River Trueth, is chiefly remarkable for it's castle, built in 1248, but improved by several of the later Danish kings. One of it's greatest singularities is the Giant's Tower, erected by Christian V. which has a flat top with a stone balustrade, and is adorned at each angle with a statue seven feet high.

South Jutland, or, as it is now commonly called, the Dutchy of Sleswic, is bounded on the north and east by the Baltic, and the Rivers Kolding and Skotburg, which separate it from North Jutland; on the south by Holstein; and on the west by the North Sea. It extends in length about eighty-five miles; and, at a medium, is about forty miles broad.

In this country there are but few eminences; and the soil is well watered and fertile, abounding in every necessary of life, and even allowing of a considerable exportation.

The inhabitants of Sleswic are an assemblage of various neighbouring nations: hence the language and customs are also various; but Lutheranism is the only prevailing religion, although some other persuasions are tolerated.

The Royal Provincial Court at Gottorp exercises supreme jurisdiction over this dutchy, which is divided into cities, prefectures, parishes, and manors. The cities, however, have their own magistracy, independent of the prefects, who superintend the collection of the royal revenues within their respective districts.

The most considerable place in Sleswic is the capital, which bears the same name, situated in a most luxuriant country, on a small arm of the sea. This city, though of an irregular form, contains several superb structures, particularly the cathedral dedicated to St.

Peter;

D E N M A R K.

Peter; and the famous convent of St. John, where only ladies of noble families are admitted. The Christian religion was first established here in the ninth century; but, towards the close of the eleventh, Paganism was restored by an irruption of the Sclavonians. However, in a few years after, they were all expelled, the true religion was again propagated and confirmed, and the city in a short time became a place of great resort from every country of Europe. But wars and disasters have frequently been severely felt, and Sleswic is now principally venerable for it's antiquity and it's misfortunes.

At a small distance from this place, towards the south, are still perceptible in many places the ruins of the famous wall erected by the Danish kings to protect them from the incursions of the Saxons: this wall is said to have been begun about the year 800; and, like Adrian's British Wall, extended from sea to sea, and was so strong as to be deemed impregnable.

Gottorp is principally famous for it's castle, the ancient seat of the Dukes of Holstein, and one of the noblest palaces and fortresses in the northern hemisphere. This structure stands in the midst of a small lake, over which, to the north, is a bridge two hundred paces in length; at the end of which a pleasant walk leads to delightful gardens, adorned with every embellishment of art and nature. Round this charming place is a park about four English miles in circumference, plentifully stocked with stags and fallow-deer. In a small room, within the limits of the pleasure-grounds, is shewn a kind of orrery, constructed by Tycho Brahe, which represents his own system of the world; besides which, there is another beautiful copper globe, about ten feet and a half in diameter, round which the celestial bodies are carried in exact order, by means of wheels turned by water.

Fredericstادت was built in 1621 by Frederic Duke of Holstein and Sleswic, who peopled it with Hollanders, to whom he granted extensive privileges. The same prince endeavoured to settle a silk-manufactory here, for which purpose he sent an embassy into Moscow and Persia. This town stands on the banks of the Eider, twenty-four miles west of Sleswic, and is of a square form, regular and clean. It is encompassed by a moat planted with rows of beautiful trees, particularly limes, which likewise line the principal streets, and make a very pleasing appearance.

Apenrade, which is one of the most delightful and flourishing towns in the dutchy, is situated in 54 degrees 52 minutes north latitude, at the bottom of a deep and spacious bay, which is surrounded on three sides with lofty mountains. It's harbour is safe and commodious; and it's inhabitants, by assiduously attending to commerce and maritime affairs, are in general opulent and respectable.

The other towns of inferior note are, Flensburgh, Husum, Haderleben, Irider, and Luxburg, or Glucksburg; which last, though an insignificant place, has a castle belonging to it.

Holstein, part of which belongs to Denmark, is bounded towards the north by the dutchy of Sleswic; and towards the south, by the dutchy of Lawenburg, and the territories of Lubec and Hamburg: but as the particular description of this country will most properly fall under the head of Germany, we shall only observe, that the king of Denmark appoints a stadtholder over his part of it, from whose decisions an appeal lies to the supreme Court of Copenhagen.

The

The principal towns in Danish Holstein are Gluckstadt, Itzehoa, Rendsburg, and Ploem.

Gluckstadt is a regular, well-built town and fortress, situated on the Elbe. It was built in 1620, on a spot of waste ground, by the permission of Christian IV. who conferred many immunities upon it. It has a convenient harbour; but, being destitute of spring-water, the inhabitants are reduced to many difficulties for the supply of that necessary element. The King's Regency Court, and other offices connected with it, are held here; and what considerably adds to its population and commerce, is, that people of all religions profess the faith in which they were brought up, without molestation. This town has endured several severe sieges, but has never submitted to a conqueror.

Itzehoa is an ancient and beautiful town, situated on the River Stor: it is divided into two parts, the New and the Old; the former of which is encompassed by the Stor, and a canal drawn from it. In this town are several noble religious structures; among which St. Lawrence's Church, St. Nicholas's Chapel, and a convent for ladies of noble birth, claim pre-eminence.

Rendsburg is a frontier town towards Germany, extremely well fortified. The number of houses amount to about six hundred, besides several elegant public structures. This town has its own consistory, and is adorned with a commercial college, established in 1738 by Christian VI.

Ploem is almost entirely encircled by lakes; yet, notwithstanding its watery situation, it has been four times wholly laid in ashes. The ducal palace here stands on a fine elevation, and commands a charming prospect. To the westward of this palace, a garden and park have lately been laid out with great delicacy of taste and design; and an hydraulic machine, placed in the latter, supplies the palace with water. There are likewise elegant kitchen and pleasure-gardens; the latter of which, being formed on an island in the lake, is beautiful and romantic beyond description.

The counties of Oldenberg and Delmenhorst are both situated in Germany, but are appendages of the Danish Crown.

Oldenberg is bounded on the west by East Friesland, on the south by the bishopric of Munster, on the east by the country of Delmenhorst and the Weser, and on the north by Jever and Jade; extending forty-eight miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth. In many places the soil is abundantly fertile, and produces excellent pasturage; but in others it is moorish and waste, and only valuable for the turf it yields for firing.

The King of Denmark, on account of his property in this county, is possessed of a seat and voice in the Westphalian College of the Courts of the Empire, and in the Diets of the Circle of Westphalia.

The capital bears the name of the county, and stands on the River Hunte, which is augmented by the influx of the Haare, as it passes through this town. It is situated in 53 degrees 8 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 13 minutes east longitude. The town is disproportionably long, but extremely well fortified with walls and moats. The castle is of a circular form, and very handsome, and in it the ancient counts used to reside. This place is divided into free houses, free inhabitants, and the garrison. The free inhabitants

habitants are exempted from such burdens as the burghers are obliged to endure, as the quartering of soldiers and keeping watch, and are only accountable to the Royal Chancery established at this place; but the burghers are subject to the town magistracy, and the garrison to the commandant.

The county of Delmenhorst, which adjoins to that of Oldenburg, is of very contracted limits, being only seventeen miles long and seven broad. Its principal town is Delmenhorst, which is situated on the little River Delme, from whence it obtains its name. It had anciently a college of canons, but now contains nothing deserving particular notice.

The natives of Denmark are in general tall and well-built, their features are regular, their complexions florid, and their hair inclining to yellow or red. In their dispositions, they are characterized by a noble author of our own nation, as being brave, courteous, and humane. The superior classes possess abundance of spirit and vivacity, and are naturally fond of magnificence and shew, yet so as not to exceed their incomes. Indeed, their taste for gaiety, dress, and expensive entertainments, has met with a seasonable and laudable check, by a recent stretch of royal prerogative, in publishing a sumptuary edict, which regulates the minutiae of expence by the strictest œconomy and wisest policy.

The French fashions are generally adopted by both sexes in summer; but, like other natives of the Hyperborean regions, they have recourse to their furs and woolly garments in winter. Even the peasants have a neatness in their manner of dress, which may be said to exceed their condition; but this is sometimes easy, though they are in general far from being affluent. They are likewise distinguished for a delicacy of manners, which in too many countries is never met with among the vulgar. They make good soldiers; good subjects; and good fathers, masters, and neighbours.

Their marriages are often contracted several years before consummation. The gentry sometimes give portions with their daughters; but the burghers only part with cloaths, household goods, and a wedding-dinner, till death.

The nobility perform the rites of sepulture with the most splendid parade; and sometimes the corpse of a person of quality is kept uninterred for several years together, till they can celebrate the funeral with sufficient ostentation. The common people, however, are buried without much ceremony in large thick chests; and in towns there are common mourners belonging to each parish, whose office is to carry the dead to their graves.

In the metropolis the lowest mechanic has the privilege of wearing a sword, which is assumed as a badge of gentility by the most indigent plebeians; but in other parts of the kingdom the gentry only are permitted to exhibit this unnecessary appendage of dress.

On an exact survey made in 1759, the subjects of this crown, in Denmark, Norway, Holstein, Oldenburg, and Delmenhorst, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders, appeared to amount to 2,444,000 souls: and, however disproportioned this number may appear to the extent of his Danish majesty's dominions, if we allow for the uncultivated state of many spacious districts, it is larger by far than might be expected, and is indeed amply sufficient for every commercial or political purpose. The tyranny of the nobility

lity over their vassals and tenants is inimical to population: but the moderation of a few patriotic sovereigns, whose love of their country seems to have increased with the acquisition of absolute power, has done much to repeople the most desert spots; and, in a few more ages, Denmark may again be as populous as in former times, when it's superfluous inhabitants were obliged to seek their subsistence on foreign shores.

The Danish language is a dialect of the Teutonic: but High Dutch and French are spoken at court; and the English tongue has lately become extremely fashionable, being now taught at Copenhagen as an essential part of education.

In 1742, a Royal Academy of Sciences was instituted at Copenhagen, with a Royal Society for the improvement and investigation of Northern history and languages; but these establishments have not as yet brought to light any eminent literary merit. Several other societies have been set on foot for laudable and beneficial purposes; but the Danes in general are still in the infancy of literature. A few great names, however, have appeared in astronomy and medicine; such as Tycho Brahe, Borrichius, Hollberg, and the Bartholines. But the gloom of ignorance is not to be dispelled by a few shining luminaries; time and numbers can only effect a change in taste, and render genius and science flourishing and fashionable.

The Danes anciently paid religious veneration to the gods Fryer, Thor, Thyr, Oden, and Freya; of which Oden was the chief. Several fruitless attempts were made in the middle ages to convert the natives to the doctrines of Christianity; and, in 882, we find that Ebbo, Bishop of Rheims, preached the Gospel in this country. King Harald Klag, who implored the protection of the Emperor Lewis, consented to be baptized; and several churches were founded throughout his dominions: but his successors being the inveterate enemies of Christianity, cruelly persecuted the new proselytes; and it was not till about the year 1000 that the true religion obtained an uninterrupted toleration.

In the reign of Christian II. when Luther began to contend for the doctrines of the Gospel in their genuine purity, his tenets were favourably received in this country; and, at a general diet held at Copenhagen in 1537, Lutheranism was declared the established religion, a new code of ecclesiastical laws was compiled, and several excellent regulations were adopted.

But though the tenets of Luther receive the sanction of government, other religious sects are not interrupted in the exercise of their particular modes of devotion; and in Denmark there is as great a variety of seceders from the national church as in most countries of Europe.

The whole kingdom of Denmark is divided into six dioceses; of which there are four in Jutland, one in Zealand, and one in Funen; which are governed by bishops, or rather general superintendants, appointed by the king. They are not distinguished from the inferior clergy by any other mark of pre-eminence than a difference of dress and title, having neither cathedrals, spiritual courts, nor the least concern with civil affairs: their office is to visit the churches and seminaries in their respective dioceses, to examine and ordain candidates for the ministry, and to hold provincial synods at stated times, where they preside, in conjunction with the governor of the province.

Subordinate

Subordinate to the bishops are the provosts, of whom there are an hundred and sixty in the kingdom, whose jurisdiction resembles that of our archdeacons; being a kind of assistants to the bishop, performing annual visitations, settling occasional disputes, and establishing and enforcing useful regulations: next to these are the preachers, or parochial clergy, whose revenues arise partly from tythes, and partly from the voluntary donations of their respective flocks. A clergyman's widow is provided for in this country in a manner at once humane and unexpensive: the successor of her deceased husband is obliged to yield her the half of his first year's income, and the eighth part of it ever after during her life.

The government of this country, till the year 1660, was one of the freest under the sun. Before that time, Denmark was governed by a king, to whose elevation the meanest subject had a right to contribute his vote: a due regard, indeed, was paid to the family of the preceding prince; and his eldest son, or at least one of the regal line, was elected, if he had not forfeited his title to that exalted dignity by his conduct, or was incapacitated by mental imbecility. The king's dignity gave him pre-eminence in the field, and in the courts of justice: but no revenues were attached to his title; and, unless he had a large estate of his own, he was obliged to live in the stile of a private gentleman. The race of Oldenburg, from which the present royal family are descended, were some of them brave and spirited princes, and had in a manner rendered the regal dignity hereditary in their house; or at least the states tacitly acquiesced in that form of government, to prevent the dreadful ravages arising from intestine wars and disputed successions; but arbitrary power had never been attempted: however, in the reign of Christian IV. the nation was reduced to the most deplorable state by a series of unsuccessful wars, and the treasury was exhausted by paying a numerous army.

The three states, that is, the nobility, clergy, and commonalty, were assembled to devise means in order to pay and disband the troops. The nobility endeavoured to shift the whole burden from themselves to the commons; while the latter, who had risked their lives, and all that was dear to them, in defence of their king and country, contended that the nobles should contribute a share towards the public exigencies. The nobility were enraged, and many bitter altercations passed on both sides; when one Otta Craeg exclaimed, that the commons were only slaves, and dependants on the lords. This was followed by a loud murmur from the clergy and burghers; who, headed by Nanson, speaker of the commons, immediately rose, and leaving the lords in a ferment, they adjourned to another place; where, consulting on the most effectual means of humbling the pride of the nobility, they entailed slavery on their latest posterity, by making the king a tender of their liberties and services, and formally requesting him to render the crown hereditary in his line. The king had not patriotism enough to refuse this alluring offer; he accepted their professions with every indication of pleasure, and promised them relief and protection: the gates of Copenhagen were instantly shut; and the nobility, finding resistance would be in vain, submitted, with the best grace they could, to confirm what the commons had done. Thus a revolution, which is only equalled by what happened more recently in a neighbouring

neighbouring kingdom, was effected without blood or public commotions; and in four days time the kingdom of Denmark was changed from a state bordering on aristocracy to an absolute monarchy.

But though the sovereigns of Denmark possess unlimited power, few instances have yet occurred of their abusing those prerogatives with which they are invested: on the contrary, the administration of civil justice in Denmark is considered by many as a model for other nations; and that great and wise monarch, the reigning King of Prussia, has actually transferred a great part of it into the Frederician code.

The fundamental laws of Denmark only fill a quarto volume, written in the language of the country, in so plain and perspicuous a manner, and on such simple principles of unalterable justice, that the most ignorant may understand them, and plead his own cause. No suit can remain undecided longer than a year and a month; but the king has a right to explain and amend according to his own pleasure.

His Danish majesty has few ensigns of royalty; his officers and attendants are not very numerous; and the unchristian and profane ceremony of bowing the knee is never used in his presence.

His titles, at full length, are, 'By the grace of God, King of Denmark and Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals; Duke of Holstein, Sleswic, Storman, and Ditmarsh; and Count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.'

The principal order of knighthood in this kingdom is that of the Elephant, or Blue Ribband, which is of the highest antiquity, and is only conferred on persons of the most illustrious rank. Its ensign, or badge, is a white enamelled Elephant, with a castle on its back, appendant to a blue ribband worn over the left-shoulder to the right-side. The knights of this order wear a silver star of eight rays on the left-breast, with the Danebourg cross in its centre.

The second order of knighthood is called the Danebourg Order, or the White Ribband, which was instituted by Waldemar II. Its badge is a Golden Cross enamelled, set with eleven diamonds, suspended by a watered white ribband with a red border, and worn over the right-shoulder to the right-side.

The offices by which government is administered are, the Privy Council, or Supreme College; the Danish Chancery; the German Chancery; the Military Chancery; the Naval Chancery; the Treasury, or College of Finance; the General College for the Improvement of Manufactures and Commerce; the General Ecclesiastical College of Inspection; and the General Post Office.

Every general government has its governor, who is always a person of distinction, invested with considerable power in spiritual, temporal, and judicial concerns. Subordinate to the governors are the prefects, who are also of the first rank; but their authority is very circumscribed. The civil government in cities and towns corporate is vested in a burgo-master and council; but some towns have a royal president, and the privilege of holding courts of judicature.

Besides the town courts, and those which every nobleman has the power of holding in his

his own manor, there are three others, the Ting Court, Land Court, and Supreme Tribunal. Causes are generally commenced in the Ting Court, both in the town and country; which court is composed of a headborough, judge, secretary, and eight peasants, who sit weekly. From this inferior court an appeal lies to the Provincial Court, which commonly consists of two judges and a secretary, and is held in most of the principal towns once a month. The other court, from which no appeal lies, is the Supreme Tribunal at Copenhagen, which is kept perpetually open. This court, where the law is silent or indeterminate, has a decisive voice, and ultimately determines controverted matters. Here are no inns of court, or public societies of lawyers, but it is in the option of any one to take up the profession of an advocate; which indeed meets with little encouragement, as every person is permitted to manage his suit, and plead his own cause.

Justice is far from being expensive in this country; and, as a summary mode of proceeding is adopted, delinquents are speedily brought to punishment. The judges are not only liable to be punished for mal-practices in the administration of justice, but even to make reparation to the party they have injured by an unjust decree. Those crimes, the enormity of which disgraces human nature, are seldom heard of in Denmark; even robbery and housebreaking are almost unknown, and treason is a crime which scarcely meets with a patron in an age.

The revenues of Denmark, which have been increasing for a century, arise from three distinct sources; namely, national impositions, duties paid by foreigners, and the rents of demesne lands. Every necessary of life, and even some of its superfluities, are moderately taxed; yet these, with the duties on marriages, paper, corporations, land, houses, and capitation-money, raise a very considerable sum. The internal taxes, however, are very uncertain; as they depend in a great measure on the exigency of the state, or the will of the sovereign. Customs and tolls upon imports and exports are more fixed, and can be better ascertained. The duties paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships passing the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow strait between Schonen and Zealand. These tolls are levied in proportion to the size of the ship and the value of her cargo, as exhibited in the bill of lading.

This tax, which forms a principal part of the royal revenue, has more than once embroiled the northern states of Europe. It has often been disputed by the English and Dutch; and the Swedes in particular, who command the opposite side of the pass, for some time absolutely refused to pay it; but, by a treaty concluded in 1720 between the two potentates, in which his Britannic Majesty George I. was guarantee, the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as the British and Dutch. This impost varies much on different nations; but in general falls heaviest on Hamburg, and some others of the Hanse towns. It is collected at Elsenore, a town seated on the Sound, at the entrance into the Baltic, about eighteen miles from Copenhagen. The Danes also claim a right to the tolls of the Weser, which are paid by ships of all nations navigating that river, those which bear the Prussian flag only excepted.

Of the gross revenues of Denmark no exact estimate can be made, though they are generally thought to amount to upwards of 800,000*l.* a year; a sum which, in this country,

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is fully adequate to every expence of government, maintaining a splendid court, and powerful armaments both by sea and land. But here it must be observed, that the military and naval establishments of Denmark cost inconceivably less than in other countries, where the pay is not only larger, but the expence of subsistence much greater.

The Danes, who were celebrated for martial achievements from the first periods of history, seem to have lost their original character, and wisely to have exchanged the laurel for the olive-wreath; yet, notwithstanding their avowed degeneracy in war, the present army of Denmark is respectable and well-disciplined, amounting to 30,000 men, infantry and cavalry included, in time of peace; but which, on any emergency, may be raised to 50,000. His present majesty seems likewise ambitious of being ranked as a maritime power, and of re-establishing the naval force of his kingdom. In this disposition he is not only encouraged by the acknowledged excellency of his subjects in seamanship, but likewise by having such a capacious sea-port at Copenhagen; and, by a regulation adopted by the same prince, thirty-six ships of the line, with a proportionable number of frigates, must always be in a condition to be readily fitted for sea. As every seafaring man is obliged once in his life to serve his king and country for six years when called upon, and for that purpose is registered, this fleet can easily be manned on any emergency; and though in time of peace many of these registered seamen may be absent by furlough from their officers, there has hardly ever been a crisis known when it was necessary to have recourse to any other method of raising men. Would not such a plan as this be full as consistent with liberty as pressing, which is practised among us in defiance of law? and might not the British government imitate an example, which could not possibly be so odious, nor unconstitutional, as the expedients they are frequently compelled to adopt?

The natural products of Denmark are fir, and other sorts of timber; black cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron; to which we may add various kinds of furs: and these articles form the basis of Danish commerce for exportation. The imports are salt, wine, brandy, silk, and other articles of luxury, which are principally obtained from France, Italy, Portugal, and England. The intercourse between Britain and Denmark has of late years been progressively increasing; and our broad-cloths, clocks, cabinet and cutlery manufactures, meet with a ready sale in this northern kingdom.

But the commerce of Denmark is not restricted to Europe only. In 1612, Christian IV. established an East India Company at Copenhagen, soon after which four ships sailed for Indostan. The original idea of an oriental trade was probably suggested by James I. of England, who espoused a princess of Denmark: but however that may be, in 1617 the Danes built and fortified a castle and town at Tranquebar, on the Coromandel coast. The perfect security which the natives of India experienced under the protection of this fort, induced many of them to settle in the town and its vicinity; so that, in a few years, the Company found themselves in circumstances sufficiently affluent to pay an annual tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars to his Danish majesty. This Company, however, aiming at an instantaneous acquisition of riches, in 1660 endeavoured to possess themselves of the spice-trade of Ceylon; but were repulsed and defeated by the Portuguese. In fact, their avaricious

avaricious conduct embroiled them with the Indians on every hand; and, had it not been for the generous assistance granted them by a governor of the English East India Company, the settlements of Tranquebar must have inevitably fallen into the hands of the Rajah of Tanjore.

On the general pacification of Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Danish East India Company were so much involved in debt, that they were obliged to publish proposals for a new subscription, for enlarging their original capital stock, and for fitting out ships, not only to different parts of Indostan, but likewise to China. Two years after this, his Danish majesty granted a new charter to the Company, with extensive privileges; and their trade is now carried on with great spirit and assiduity.

The West India and Guinea trade, which was formerly carried on by charter, was dissolved in 1754; and the small islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies, belonging to Denmark, were declared to be free ports: but in the year following the king established an African Company, with a capital of five hundred actions, every action consisting of five hundred rix-dollars, which are shared between thirteen adventurers, to whom the Fort of Christianburg on the Guinea coast belongs.

The Iceland and Finmark Company obtained their charter in 1746, and monopolized the entire trade of these countries till 1771.

But, besides these, there is a General Trading Company, established by royal charter in 1747, which enjoys many valuable privileges, and was instituted on purpose to carry on such branches of commerce as private adventurers were unable to undertake. Its capital is one thousand actions, part of which only is deposited; but, on any emergency, the whole may be easily collected. This company trades to France, Spain, the Mediterranean, the Baltic, and Greenland.

An Assignment Exchange, or Loan Bank, was erected at Copenhagen in 1736, which issues bank-notes of different values, and which are allowed to pass through all the king's dominions as current specie. Sums, not less than a hundred rix-dollars, are lent out of this bank, at the rate of four per cent. on depositing some adequate pledge. The capital stock is only five hundred thousand rix-dollars; but the circulation of notes is often to a double amount.

There is likewise an Insurance Office for ships at sea, sanctioned by royal charter; an institution as beneficial as it is praise-worthy.

The current coins of Denmark are the rose-noble, equivalent to eighteen shillings sterling; the ducat, to nine shillings; the rix-dollar, to four and sixpence; the slet-dollar, to three shillings; the rix-mark, to eleven-pence; the slet-mark, to nine-pence; and the stiver, to a penny: besides which, there are some copper coins of inferior value.

The weights of this country are the great and small hundred; the former a hundred and twenty pounds weight, and the latter a hundred and twelve: there is likewise a weight called a lispound, equal to our stone of fourteen pounds; and the ship-pound, weighing twenty lispounds.

Of measures, the Danish ell is only about two-thirds of the ell English; but the mile is almost equal to six of ours.

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For the best history of Norway we are indebted to Saxo Grammaticus, who wrote in pure Latin, in the twelfth century, a time when the Roman tongue was almost lost in other parts of Europe. Like the historians of those early ages, Saxo made use of fable to enliven his subject; yet, divesting it of extraneous trappings and ridiculous absurdities, we learn that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, Scots, Irish, and other northern nations, had their bards, who sung the military exploits of their heroes in verse.

The ancient Scandinavians, who inhabited modern Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, were certainly Scythians by their original; but how far the ancient Scythia extended, is beyond the disquisition of any geographer: fable and uncertainty involve not only places, but people, in such remote ages; and even the name of the first Christian king of Denmark has not been handed down to us with historical truth, the names of the commanders and the commanded being so blended together, that no precise idea of the whole Scandinavian history can be formed. These nations were continually removing from one country to another, several tribes or septs united in expeditions both by sea and land, and the adventurers were generally denominated from their chieftains: thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Goths, Germans, and Normans, were indiscriminately used to express the inhabitants of the north in general. About 500 years, however, after the Christian æra, we learn that these northern hordes formed many maritime expeditions, and insulted all the sea-coast of Europe; and that they settled in Ireland, and became masters of England and part of Scotland, about the year 1012; both which kingdoms still retain traces of their barbarous ferocity.

Few interesting events occur in the history of the kingdom of Denmark before 1387; when Margaret mounted the throne; and by her address, assisted by some pretensions to hereditary right, she formed the union of Calmar, by which she was recognized sovereign of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. Her resolution, courage, and address, gained her the appellation of the Semiramis of the North; but her successors being destitute of her shining abilities and distinguished qualifications for government, again lost Sweden, though Norway still continued annexed to their sovereignty. After several internal revolutions, which produced but little alteration in the system of state, the regal power fell into the hands of Christian Count of Oldenburg, from whom the reigning family is descended, about the year of the Christian æra 1448; and, in 1536, the protestant religion was established in this country by the wise and politic Christian III. In 1629, Christian IV. was chosen head of the protestant states which leagued against the House of Austria: but though personally brave, and endowed with every mental qualification necessary to constitute the hero, fearful of losing his own dominions, he relinquished the proffered honour; on which the illustrious Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden was elected to that command in his stead. The Dutch having obtained a diminution of the duties of the Sound in the reign of the last-mentioned Danish monarch, his son Frederic III. consented to accept the annual compensation of 150,000 florins for the whole. After this the Dutch, by their intrigues, prevailed upon him to declare war against Charles Gustavus of Sweden; which impolitic step had well-nigh lost him his crown. Charles stormed the fortress of Frederickstadt; and, as soon as winter commenced, marched his army over the

the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprized the Danish troops, took Odenzee and Nyburg, and proceeded to invest Copenhagen itself. Cromwell the usurper interposed, and Frederick defended his capital with great magnanimity, till the peace of Roschild; by which, however, he was compelled to cede the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, together with the islands of Bornholm, Bahus, and Drontheim, all in Norway, to the Swedes. To elude these rigorous terms, Frederick had recourse to various subterfuges; on which Charles took Cronenburg, and once more besieged Copenhagen both by sea and land. The steady intrepidity of Frederick, under these accumulated misfortunes, endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen in particular made a noble defence till a Dutch fleet came to their assistance, which beat that of Sweden, and relieved the Danes from the blockade. Fortune now smiled upon the efforts of Frederick, and the fate of war seemed entirely changed in his favour; and had not an English fleet appeared in the Baltic, he would probably have carried the war into Sweden itself. Thus countenanced, Charles a third time laid siege to Copenhagen; but France and England both offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital, by which the island of Bornholm was returned to the Danes, the other ceded territories being confirmed to the Swedes.

Though this peace was far from being honourable to the Danish nation, the bravery of Frederick, his contempt of danger, and his attention to the safety of his subjects in preference to his own, so endeared him to his people, that a revolution was brought about in his favour, the crown was rendered hereditary in his family, and he, as before observed, was declared absolute.

Frederick departed this life in 1670, and was succeeded by his son Christian V. who compelled the Duke of Holstein Gottorp to relinquish all the advantages he had endeavoured to secure by the treaty of Roschild. He afterwards recovered a number of places in Schonen; but suffered a signal defeat in the battle of Lunden, by the arms of Charles XI. of Sweden. Christian, however, was not dispirited by this disaster; he obstinately fought to regain the entire possession of the dominions of his ancestors, but was at last totally overthrown at the bloody battle of Landskroon; and being in a manner deserted by his allies, and his country reduced to the lowest ebb of distress, he submitted to an involuntary treaty prescribed by France in 1679. He afterwards became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV. of France, whose ambition had forged chains for Europe; and, after a variety of fights, treaties, and infractions of treaties, with several northern and German powers, his Danish majesty died in 1699.

Frederick IV. his son and successor, after the example of his predecessors, maintained his pretensions to Holstein, and probably would have made himself absolute master of it, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Toningen, while the heroic Charles XII. of Sweden, who was no more than sixteen years of age, debarked within eight miles of Copenhagen, to support his brother-in-law the Duke of Holstein. The peace of Travendahl, which was concluded much to the satisfaction and interest of the duke, probably saved Copenhagen from falling into the hands of Charles XII. But notwithstanding this peace, Frederick was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes; and while

while Charles was in exile at Bender in Turkey, he marched an army through Holstein into Swedish Pomerania, and in the year 1712 took the city of Stade. The Swedes, however, overcame him with prodigious slaughter at the battle of Gadebusch, and laid the city of Altena in ashes. In revenge for this insult and loss, Frederick possessed himself of the greatest part of Ducal Holstein, and compelled the Swedish general Steinbock to surrender himself prisoner of war with all his troops. By a number of enterprizes successfully achieved, about the year 1716, the allies of Frederick began to suspect that he was aiming at the universal empire of Scandinavia. Soon after this, Charles XII. returning from exile, renewed the war against Denmark with the utmost animosity and determined resolution; and would probably have annihilated this rival power, had he not met with an untimely death at the siege of Fredericshal. His Britannic majesty then offered his mediation between Frederick and the crown of Sweden; in consequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left the duchy of Sleswic in the possession of Denmark. In 1730, Frederick reposed from his earthly warfare; having first experienced the sorrow and vexation of beholding his capital laid in ashes by an accidental conflagration.

His son, Christian Frederick, mounted the throne with every advantage; and, like a patriot king, made no other use of his power, and the happy situation in which he found public affairs, than in cultivating peace with his neighbours, easing his subjects of many oppressive taxes, and promoting their general happiness and tranquillity. Having guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, an agreement by which the several potentates of Europe engaged to support the House of Austria in favour of the Queen of Hungary, Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the Emperor, during the continuance of the dispute to the succession of the Polish crown. But though this prince was of a pacific disposition, he was excessively jealous of his rights, in the assertion of which he had several disputes with his neighbours, particularly the Hamburgers. In 1738, a dispute originated between him and his Britannic majesty, about the little lordship of Steinhorst, which had been mortgaged to the latter by the Duke of Holstein Lawenburg, and which Christian pretended belonged to him. In this contest some blood was spilt; but a treaty soon after followed, in which Christian perceiving the predilection of his Britannic majesty for his German dominions, made a most advantageous bargain, by stipulating to keep up 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover; as a compensation for which, he was to receive a subsidy of 70,000*l*. Two years after this, the same tenacity of right had nearly embroiled him with Holland; for some Dutch ships trading to Iceland without permission, they were seized and confiscated by his order: however, this difference was amicably settled by the interposition of Sweden; in which kingdom Christian had so strong a party, that it was generally believed he intended to revive the union of Calmar, and procure his son to be declared successor to his then Swedish majesty. But whatever his views might have been in this respect, the other European powers would certainly have rendered them abortive, as the balance of power would have been too much violated had all Scandinavia been subjected to one family. Christian Frederick IV. departed this life in 1746, leaving behind him that most honourable appellation, The Father of his People.

Frederick



Frederick V. his son, who had espoused the Princess Louisa, daughter of his Britannic majesty, succeeded him. This monarch improved upon his father's plan for the welfare of his subjects; but, except in the quality of a mediator, he took no concern in the military operations of his time. On the demise of his first queen, he married a daughter of the Duke of Wolfenbuttel, and died in 1766.

His successor Christian VII. who espoused the Princess Carolina Matilda, sister of his present most sacred Majesty of Great Britain, in 1768, has in many instances deviated from the salutary steps of his honoured progenitors. His resolution of visiting the principal kingdoms and states of Europe, (which he accordingly executed) seemed to indicate a mind intent upon availing itself of foreign polity, for the improvement of his own governments; but the manner in which he conducted himself during that extensive progress, by no means realized those hopes which his own subjects, and the world in general, had entertained of him.

That a weak prince is in general the dupe of some insinuating and plausible favourite, is an observation deducible from the histories of all ages and nations: this monarch entrusted the whole administration of his kingdom to a German adventurer named Struensee, whom he elevated to the highest dignity, and for whom his queen was said to have entertained an unfortunate and criminal attachment. Julia Maria, however, the queen-dowager, a woman of an intriguing and political spirit, formed a plan at once to ruin the prime-minister with his master, and the queen-consort with her husband; which she suddenly and effectually accomplished in January 1772.

As to the chain of causes that led to this unhappy event, we are totally in the dark, the British court having studiously and successfully concealed every article of genuine information from public inspection. All that can at present be handed down to posterity with historical truth, is, that some of the principal nobility were suddenly seized and committed to close confinement; that Count Struensee, and his coadjutor Count Brandt, were tried and sentenced to death, which sentence was accordingly put in execution; and that the resolute and spirited interference of the British minister alone seems to have saved the life of the Queen-consort; who, quitting Denmark, resided in the castle of Zell, in Germany, till her death, which happened three years after, by a putrid fever.

By Queen Carolina Matilda, his present majesty has issue a son, born in 1768; and a daughter, born in 1771.

C H A P. III.

S W E D E N.

THE kingdom of Sweden includes that extensive country which lies between Denmark, Norway, and Russia; having Russia, the Baltic, and the Gulph of Finland, on the east; the Baltic, and the Sound, on the south; the Desert, and the impassable mountains of Norway, on the west; and Norwegian Lapland on the north: the whole extending

ing from 55 degrees 30 minutes to 69 degrees north latitude; and from the 12th to the 32d degree east longitude from London; being about one thousand four hundred miles in length, and nine hundred and twenty in breadth.

The air of this country is extremely salubrious; but the winters are long and severe: in the depth of the brumal season, however, the nights, by the splendor of the moon, the reflection of the snow, and the lucid brightness of the sky, are sufficiently light to render travelling as eligible by night as day.

The continuance of the sun above the horizon of Stockholm, on the longest day, is eighteen hours and a half, when the heat is intense; but the nights are luminous and pleasant. Violent storms of wind and rain are seldom felt in this climate, nor is the sky frequently overcast.

Summer bursts suddenly from winter; and vegetation is considerably more rapid than in many less northern climates. This season, however, seldom continues above three months; when the aid of stoves and warm furs must again be called in, to mitigate the severity of the cold.

Extensive woods and unfrequented forests, which overspread a vast extent of this country, produce pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and oak. These afford firing in the most plentiful manner, and at the cheapest rate; and likewise furnish an important article of exportation.

There are in Sweden several lakes of considerable extent; the principal of which are, the Wetter, the Wener, and the Maeler. The first is situated in *Æstrogothia*, the second in *Westrogothia*, and the third empties itself into the sea at Stockholm. These, with various others of inferior note dispersed over the face of the whole country, supply the natives with several sorts of excellent fish, and greatly contribute to facilitate the conveyance of goods from one place to another.

Where agriculture is practicable, the soil is abundantly fertile, though seldom above half a foot deep; so that it is very common to behold a single ox turning up the ground. Ever since the reign of Charles XII. the Swedes have been at incredible pains to correct the natural sterility of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, which in some places have been attended with ample success, and in general the peasants now imitate the agriculture of France and England; but, notwithstanding their utmost exertions, they have never been able to raise sufficient corn for the national consumption. Gothland, indeed, produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, and beans; but the natives, in many places, either from want of industry, or from an unhappy situation, are obliged to procure corn from Livonia, and the provinces of the Baltic.

In summer, nature wears a very agreeable face; the fields being then clothed with a variety of flowers, and even the most barren rocks yielding strawberries, raspberries, currants, and other small fruits: but the delicious productions of warmer climes are almost unknown in this country; apricots, peaches, nectarines, and pine-apples, being seldom cultivated with success; though melons, in favourable seasons, are brought to great perfection.

In this, and other northern countries, the breed of cattle is small-sized; nor can it be improved

improved by importing larger from abroad, as they soon degenerate. The sheep bear a very coarse wool, which is only proper to be manufactured into garments for the peasants. The Swedish horses are small, but hardy, strong, and sure-footed; and are said to be peculiarly adapted for war.

When the winters are unusually long and severe, and fodder consequently scarce, the farmers, to preserve the lives of their cattle, are constrained to adopt a variety of expedients; one of which we shall mention, as it might be used in our own country, on similar occasions, with facility and success. They boil about a handful of hay in three gallons of water; which infusion is extremely nutritious, replenishes the udders of the cows with an amazing quantity of milk, and makes one truss of hay go farther, and prove more beneficial, than ten in the common way.

Several kinds of wild beasts, such as lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, otters, martens, and wild-cats, abound in different parts of this country, which are hunted either for their flesh, skins, or furs. Deer, elks, and hares which possess the property of turning white in winter, are very plentiful, and afford excellent diversion to the hunters. Domestic and wild-fowls likewise abound; but there are few species different from those of Norway, already described. The keder is as large as a turkey, and exceedingly delicious; for which quality also the orras, resembling a partridge, is much celebrated. The Swedish hawks, after being carried into foreign lands, have been known to revisit their native country, one of them having been killed in Finland, with an inscription on a small gold plate signifying that he belonged to the French king.

The aquatic animals of Sweden are the same with those in other northern countries; and are caught in such prodigious quantities, that some kinds are salted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil extracted from the seals taken in the Gulph of Finland, furnishes no inconsiderable article of foreign commerce.

But the mines of this country, many of which are excellent and valuable, constitute it's principal wealth. Silver, copper, lead, and iron, are drawn from the bowels of the earth in amazing quantities; the last-mentioned metal furnishing employment for near five hundred hammering-mills, forges, and smelting-houses. A gold-mine, likewise, has been discovered in Sweden; but it's produce is extremely inconsiderable in proportion to the labour required to purify the ore. One of the silver-mines is of prodigious dimensions: it's first gallery is one hundred fathoms below the surface of the earth; the roof is supported by vast oaken beams, and from thence the miners descend about forty fathoms lower before they reach the inferior vein. No records are extant whereby the antiquity of this-mine can be ascertained; but it evidently appears to be the work of ages, and it's produce is said to be about 20,000 crowns a year. The copper-mines are also of great extent, but their product is uncertain; however, they are all loaded with vast taxes and deductions to the government, which finds this the principal resource in every exigence of the state.

Those subterraneous mansions are capacious beyond conception, and at the same time commodious for their inhabitants; so that the miners, either from habit or interest, often seem happy and contented in their hidden world.

The ingenious and accurate Mr. Wraxhall gives a very agreeable and interesting account

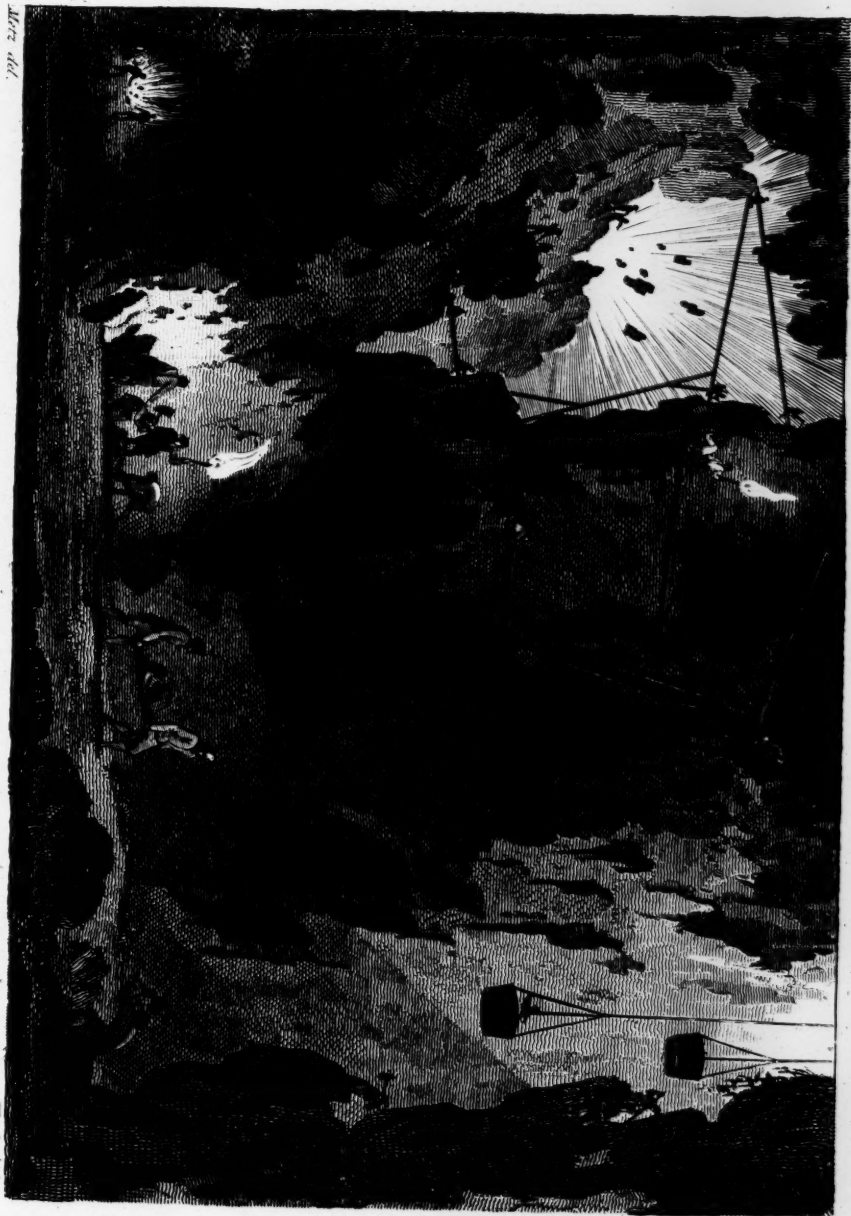
count of his descent into the iron mines at Danmora, which are celebrated for producing the finest iron ore of any in Europe, and constitute one of the most important sources of national wealth and revenue. In these mines the ore is torn up by means of gunpowder; which operation is performed every day at noon, and is one of the most tremendous and awful that can possibly be conceived. The above intelligent traveller informs us, that he arrived at the mouth of the great mine, which is about half an English mile in circumference, in time to be present at one of these grand explosions; that the stones were thrown, by the violence of the powder, to an astonishing height above the surface of the earth; and that the concussion was so great, as to shake every object to a considerable extent. When the explosion was over, he tells us, that, to gratify the natural passion of curiosity, he determined to venture down into the mine in a basket, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the inspector, at whose house he had lodged the preceding evening.

‘I am not ashamed,’ says he, ‘to own, that when I found myself thus suspended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the deep and dark abyss below me, to which I could see no termination, I shuddered with apprehension, and half repented my curiosity. This was, however, only a momentary sensation; and before I had descended a hundred feet, I looked round on the scene with very tolerable composure. I was near nine minutes before I could reach the bottom, it being eighty fathoms deep. The view of the mine, when I set my feet on earth, was awful in the highest degree. Whether terror or pleasure formed the predominant feeling, as I looked at it, is hard to say. The light of the day was very faintly admitted into these subterraneous caverns: in many places it was also absolutely lost, and flambeaux supplied its place. The miners were employed in boring holes for the admission of powder, seated on beams of wood laid across some parts of the mine, with the same unconcern I would have felt in any ordinary employment; though the least dizziness, or even a failure in preserving their equilibrium, must have made them lose their seats, and dash them to pieces against the rugged surface of the rocks beneath. A confinement for life, in these horrible iron-dungeons, must surely, of all punishments which human subtlety has devised, be one of the most terrible.

‘I remained three quarters of an hour in these gloomy and frightful caverns, and traversed every part of them which was accessible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole surface of the ground, and I found myself surrounded with the cold of the most rigorous winter, amid darkness and caves of iron. In one of these, which runs a considerable way under the rock, were eight wretches warming themselves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little scanty subsistence produced from their miserable occupation. They rose with surprise at seeing so unexpected a guest among them; and I was not a little pleased to dry my feet at their fire, which were wet with treading on the melted ice.

‘There are no less than one thousand three hundred men constantly employed in these mines; and their pay is only a common dollar, or three-pence English, a day.

‘After having gratified my curiosity with a full view of these subterraneous apartments, I made the signal for being drawn up; and felt so little terror when re-ascending,



More del.

VIEW of an IRON MINE.

Engraved by H. Smith & Co. 1840.

Thatch, pump

'ing, compared with that on letting down, that I am convinced, in five or six times more, I should have been perfectly indifferent to it; and could have solved a problem in mathematics, or composed a sonnet to my mistress, in the bucket, without any degree of fright or apprehension.'

We have been more copious in this extract than usual, that our readers may form some general ideas of mines; which, though productive of infinite wealth, cannot be beheld by the humane without the tear of pity.

The Swedes in general are a strong and robust people, capable of enduring great fatigue, and inured to want from their infancy: however, there is not only a great diversity of character among them, but also their general one as a nation has varied in different ages. At present, the peasants seem a hardy race of men, heavy and plodding, possessing no other ambition than to subsist themselves and their families in the best manner they can: they are at the same time honest, simple, hospitable, diligent, and persevering; but bear not the smallest national feature of their heroic progenitors, who, under Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names, and shook the basis of the most mighty empires. The intrigues, indeed, of their senators, involved them in the late war against the King of Prussia; but they shewed themselves destitute of either active or passive courage. The higher classes, however, have not so much degenerated from their original character; they are still naturally brave, polite, hospitable, jealous of honour, and attached to their national interest. Sweden is far from being populous in proportion to its extent; desert moors and barren mountains occupy large spaces, where industry can scarcely exert itself with success, and where a numerous population could not possibly subsist. Some ingenious Swedes have computed the number of inhabitants in Sweden and Finland at about three millions; but all calculations of this kind must be vague, fluctuating, and uncertain.

The employments of the vulgar, or the means by which they procure subsistence, lie in agriculture, grazing, hunting, fishing, and working in the mines. In the more northern parts of the kingdom they are compelled to use the humblest fare; making a sort of bread of the bark of several trees, which they incorporate with roots: in spring, they strip the bark from the firs; and, having pared off the exterior asperities, they dry it in an oven, or place it over a wood fire, till both sides become brown, swell, and undergo a kind of fermentation; by which the resinous matter being consumed, they grind the whole into meal, and make it into bread.

Necessity, likewise, teaches this indigent people to make bread of a plant called *misse*, which is gathered during spring in the morasses; and, indeed, the numerous expedients to which they are reduced to satisfy the cravings of nature, would hardly meet with credit in this land of lavish plenty, where the mendicant would spurn at the food which the superior ranks in some other countries regard as luxuries.

Persons in affluent circumstances, however, (who are few, comparatively speaking, in any country) live in an elegant stile, and imitate the way of life of the more southern nations of Europe.

The dress of the common people is almost the same with that in Denmark; but the better

better sort are infatuated with French modes and fashions, being extremely, and often fatally, expensive in their equipage and shew.

There is such an affinity between the Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian tongues, which are all so many dialects of the Teutonic, that the inhabitants of the three kingdoms can perfectly understand one another. From many Runic inscriptions, still to be seen near the ancient depositories of the dead, it is evident that the Swedes made use of that character in the ages of Pagan idolatry.

Several branches of learning have been cultivated of late years in this country with the greatest success. The Swedish nobility and gentry are, in general, more conversant with polite literature than those of other countries. The candid and penetrating natural philosopher Haselquist, who died as he was making discoveries in the oriental regions, will ever be mentioned with respect. That able civilian, politician, and historian, Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; as well as the late Linnæus, who to the deepest researches in some branches of natural philosophy, united the utmost systematic precision. In the walk of composition chosen by the latter, he will ever remain unrivalled; and though future discoveries may enlarge the bounds of natural science, his plan can perhaps never be altered with advantage. The passion of Queen Christina for literature, her munificence to the learned, and her own acquirements in science, are sufficiently known. The fine arts at this time were particularly patronized by the throne; and several learned Swedes in other kingdoms bear no mean reputation in science, in spite of envy and national prejudices.

The universities of Sweden are those of Upsal and Abo; the former of which was instituted four hundred years ago, and being patronized by several successive monarchs, has gained particular celebrity: but the latter is not so well endowed, nor so flourishing. There is a Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm; and likewise a Royal Academy of Painting, Sculpture, and Military Mathematics. Several volumes of memoirs have been published by the members of these institutions, whose merit has procured them a favourable reception abroad: however, the greatest literary curiosity in this country is a manuscript copy of a translation of the Gospels into Gothic, done above one thousand three hundred years ago by Upsala, bishop of Thracia.

Seminaries for the education of youth are established in different towns; and every diocese is provided with a free-school, in which boys are qualified for the university; yet learning is far from being general, or easily acquired by the vulgar.

The thickest shades of ignorance formerly overspread this country; and it was involved in the grossest idolatry. Upsal was the seat of superstitious worship; to which place the Emperor Charles the Great sent an eminent ecclesiastic, named Herbert, who preached the Gospel in East Gothland. The celebrated Anscharius was sent by the Emperor Lewis for the same purpose; and in the middle ages we find that the clergy were in possession of many valuable estates, and that the pope assumed a great power even over the temporal concerns of the kingdom.

The abuses of the papal see, the profligacy of the Roman Catholic clergy, and several other concurring causes, procured a favourable reception to Olaus Petri, a disciple of Luther, who promulgated his master's tenets with great success, and, under Gustavus Vasa,

Vasa, introduced the Reformation into Sweden in spite of numerous and complicated difficulties. Great opposition, indeed, was afterwards made to it, in the reigns of John and Sigismund; but, in the diet and synod convened at Upsal in 1593, the reformed religion of Luther was finally confirmed, when the different states of the kingdom, in solemn convocation, agreed to adhere to its doctrines. An act of uniformity was passed in 1613; but, in 1741, by royal edict, his majesty was pleased to indulge the Calvinists with the free exercise of their religion in all the sea-port towns except that of Carlscroon.

The hierarchy, or church-government, is composed of the archbishop of Upsal, who performs the coronation-ceremony; and ten bishops and three superintendants. In religious matters, the Swedes are surprizingly uniform and unremitting; and entertain such a rooted aversion to popery, that castration is the fate of every Roman Catholic priest discovered in their country. The ecclesiastical benefices are comfortable, but not ample: the clergy are entirely precluded from any direction in the affairs of state; yet such is the sanctity of their lives and morals, that the people regard them with the highest veneration. Their churches are neat and commodious structures, and a few of them are ornamented: a body of ecclesiastical laws and canons directs their religious œconomy; which is, in general, founded on the soundest principles of the Gospel, and enforced with an exemplary assiduity.

Arts and manufactures have made a rapid progress in Sweden within the two last centuries. Formerly there were no manufactures in the kingdom; even that of iron was introduced so late as the sixteenth century, before which period they sold their own crude ore to the Hanse towns, and bought it back again when manufactured into utensils. By the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, about the middle of the seventeenth century, they set up the manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, soap, leather-dressing, and sugar-baking. However, the wars of Charles XII. though glorious, were inimical to trade; the progress of arts and manufactures suffered a temporary suspension during his reign, but revived again in the reign of Frederick I. who indulged foreign artists in the free exercise of the religion in which they were born.

The present manufactures of Sweden are those of silk, cloth, cotton, fustian, and a variety of other stuffs; linen and sail-cloth, Morocco leather, and dyeing and printing of cottons: they likewise have erected houses for the boiling and refining of allum, sugar, soap, and salt; and for fabricating glass, porcelain, and paper; besides which, they have gunpowder-mills, stamping, boring, flatting, and saw-mills; and amazing quantities of iron, steel, brass, and copper; are wrought in this country, and formed into every utensil and implement commonly employed in domestic concerns, agriculture, or war.

No kingdom can be better situated for commerce than Sweden, as it lies between the Baltic and the North Sea. Those towns which are privileged to import and export goods in their own ships, and to carry on trade with either natives or foreigners, are called Staple-towns, of which there are twenty-four; while those which lie near the sea, and are only permitted to carry on a domestic trade, are called Land-towns; and others are known by the name of Mine-towns.

Stockholm, the capital, and Gottenburg, are the two principal Staple-towns: at the former are established, a College of Commerce; an Assurance Office; and the National Bank, whose capital is about six millions of silver dollars, each nearly equal in value to eighteen-pence sterling: at the latter the Swedish East India Company was erected in 1731, which pays a tribute to the government of fifty thousand silver dollars for every ship that returns safe from India.

The exports of Sweden are iron wrought and in bars, wrought metals, timber, pitch, tar, saltpetre, gunpowder, pot-ash, cordage, furs, leather, and dried fish. The imports are corn, flesh, and other articles of subsistence; and brandy, wine, drugs, and silk, with many other commodities conducive to convenience or luxury. About the year 1752, the Swedes had greatly increased their exports, and diminished their imports; but the mad jealousy of government, and the numerous taxes with which the nation is oppressed, have conspired to check the spirit of commerce, and to impoverish adventurers and individuals.

The Swedish coins are, the gold ducat, equivalent to nine shillings and four-pence sterling; and the silver oer, one of which is equal to four pfenning, twenty of them to a caroline, (about one shilling and two-pence value) and thirty-two to a silver dollar; besides which, double and half carolines, and double, single, and half oers, are current here. The copper coins are pretty numerous; the largest being a copper dollar, about four groschen, equivalent to sixpence-farthing sterling; which pieces are so large and unportable, that when considerable sums are to be discharged in them, a cart or wheel-barrow is necessary to convey them to the place of payment.

A maxim of the basest policy is observed by the Swedish government; which is, to encourage manufactures in preference to agriculture, in order to support the arbitrary power of the nobility, and oppress the commonalty. By this means, those whose genius leads them to adopt the military, naval, or learned walks of life, are frequently compelled to seek for employment in foreign lands; and the poor, unfed and unprotected, either to drag out a wretched existence at home, or to emigrate to other climes.

To increase this national misfortune, smuggling, that bane of industry and morals, scarcely meets with any check from government. Most kinds of goods may be purchased one-half cheaper than they can be manufactured, owing to this criminal supineness of the ruling power; hence the merchants and manufacturers are in general wretchedly poor, and are often obliged to draw upon the merchants of other countries for the price of their exports before they are able to ship them off.

The established revenues of Sweden arise principally from a capitation-tax, demesne lands, excises, customs, certain tithes, mines, and law-suits. These taxes in the aggregate are computed to raise about five hundred and ninety-four thousand pounds sterling; but, by several late regulations of government, the revenues are on the increase. Two-thirds of the annual levies are applied for the support of the civil and military establishment, and the rest for the use of the royal family. And here it may not be improper to remark, that the crown of Sweden has been, for upwards of a century, subsidiary to France; from which reason the former has often sacrificed its dearest interests and national honour to the latter.

The

The chief part of the Swedish forces is composed of an established militia; the regulation of which was either invented, or new-modelled, by Charles XI. The nobility and gentry furnish the cavalry, and the infantry are raised among the farms. The king's commission distributes them through the various provinces, in proportion to the number of farms, and their annual value. Every farm of the yearly value of sixty pounds is charged with one foot-soldier, by which means the country is liable to provide for all the common soldiers; while the officers, both horse and foot, are maintained by the king, who has appropriated for that purpose some of the crown-lands.

Under this establishment there are twenty-eight regiments of foot, and fifteen regiments of horse, who are all comfortably provided for, in a manner as unexpensive as possible. The foot-soldier, if single, boards at the house of the farmer, and is allowed cloathing, and about twenty shillings a year; but, if married, he has a small cottage erected for him at the expence of the person on whom he is quartered, and is allowed hay and pasturage for a cow, and land enough to supply him with bread. Trespasses and crimes committed by the soldiery, while embodied, are subject to the cognizance of military law; but otherwise, to the civil law of the country. This military constitution is strictly kept up; and it may indeed be literally said, that every Swedish soldier has a property in the country he defends, as it is endeared to him by the closest ties of blood and society: and though Sweden is now no longer free, yet it's military establishment is perfectly consistent with civil liberty; to which a standing army, governed by laws of their own, is extremely repugnant.

As in Denmark, the sailors are of two classes; namely, one order which is always ready for actual service; and another, which is but nominally so, being only registered, and liable to be called upon on any emergency. The naval force of this country, which once made a respectable figure against it's enemies, is now in a poor and debilitated state; the ships of war, which are stationed at Carlscroon, where are also the dock-yards, store-houses, and all sorts of naval materials, are all in a wretched condition; and the port itself, which is defended by several batteries of cannon, and is supposed to be a very strong place by the natives, would make but a short defence if vigorously attacked by a few ships of the line.

The executive power is vested in five great crown-officers, who preside in distinct tribunals, each composed of a certain number of senators; and when any of their places becomes vacant, the king generally confers it on the most ancient senator of the tribunal in which the vacancy happens. These officers are stiled, the Drotter, or Chief Justice; the Constable, who presides in the council of war; the Admiral, who superintends the marine; the Chancellor, who is at the head of the police; and the Lord High Treasurer, who has the administration of the treasury, and regulates finance.

The royal revenues, arising principally from duties on merchandize, were anciently so small, that they were inadequate to the support of a crowned head; but they were afterwards considerably augmented by the discovery of the mines. Still, however, they were too small for the splendor of royalty, till the reformation of religion took place; when
Gusta-

Gustavus I. having proposed to the nobility to share the church-lands with him, which then took up above one-third of the whole kingdom, boldly seized the greatest part of them himself, and united also with the crown the right of forfeitures, which had till then belonged to the church.

The civil and political institutions of Sweden were formerly as various as the provinces of which it is composed; each of which had statutes and customs peculiar to itself, enacted as occasion required by the governor of the province; who, while the kingdom was elective, possessed very unconstitutional powers. This diversity of laws was necessarily attended with great confusion; to remedy which, about two centuries ago, a code of jurisprudence was compiled, and intended to be universal in its effects. The defects of this compilation, however, are so numerous, and the laws it contains so few, that it is necessary, in most cases, to call in the assistance of the civil law; whose professors having but small salaries, are too often induced to pervert the current of justice for the pecuniary bribe. This corruption, indeed, would probably be more evident, did not each superior court keep a check upon the lower, and the king's Revision Court over-awe the whole; to which all civil causes, where property to the value of seventy pounds is disputed, are appealable. In this court the king frequently sits in person, assisted by the President of the Chancery and a few privy-counsellors.

Subordinate to this are three degrees of courts for the distribution of justice. Of the lowest order there is one established in every corporation, and also in each district or territory; of the second order, there is likewise one in most corporations, and in every province; and of the third sort, which are called National Courts, there are only three, which are held at Stockholm, Jenekoping, and Abo. From the lower courts all causes of blood must be transmitted to the respective national courts, where they are determined without farther appeal. In each of these superior courts a privy-counsellor is president, and above half the assessors must be gentlemen. These courts are always open; and, as they determine matters in a summary way, business is dispatched in them with great expedition.

Every bishop holds a consistory court in his respective diocese for ecclesiastical causes; but these courts have only power to inflict spiritual punishment, being precluded from concerning themselves with temporal matters, which must be decided by the national courts.

For the regulation of mines, and settling disputes among the miners, there is a general court called the College of Mines, established at Stockholm; in which the President of the Treasury generally sits as chief.

Law-suits are as unexpensive in Sweden as in any country in the world; but, by a late constitution, which enacts, that all declarations, sentences, and acts, must be written upon sealed paper, the charge of justice falls more heavy than formerly. Every person is permitted to become his own advocate; and, in criminal causes, is even compelled to plead in his own defence: the practice of the law is therefore far from being esteemed honourable, and is rather the refuge of want than the choice of opulence.

The custom of trial by juries is so ancient in Sweden, that their writers pretend it had
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it's origin among them, and was copied by other nations: however that may be, it is now every where disused, except in the inferior courts, where the jurymen are for life, having small salaries annexed to their posts.

In criminal matters, where the facts are disputable, or where the judges are favourable, the defendant is permitted to purge himself by oath; to which must be added the oaths of at least six other men bearing testimony to his supposed innocence.

Treason, murder, double adultery, (as it is called) burning houses, and other enormous crimes, are expiated by death; which is inflicted by hanging the men, and beheading the women; to which burning, quartering, and hanging in chains, are sometimes superadded, according to the heinousness of the offence. The most honourable death is that of shooting, which is usually inflicted on persons of quality. Thieves have been lately punished with a kind of perpetual slavery; for the exercise of which the numerous mines in this country always furnish sufficient opportunities. This sentence, as it is more dreadful than any death, is attended with the happiest effects; for, in proportion as the punishment is awful, the number of offenders is few.

The barbarous and inhuman practice of duelling is justly punished with exemplary severity. If one of the parties be killed, the survivor is put to death, and their memories are branded with some mark of infamy. Where neither are killed, they are both imprisoned for two years, and subsisted on bread and water during the whole time; after which they are obliged to pay a fine of a thousand crowns each before they can procure their enlargement. As private revenge is particularly discouraged, the legislature do not think the reparation of honour an object beneath their attention: and personal insults are referred to the national courts, who usually adjudge recantation and begging pardon in public.

All estates, whether hereditary or acquired, descend in equal portions to the children; of which the son has two shares, and the daughter one: nor is it in the power of a parent to alter this proportion without a judicial decree. Few disputes originate about the property of estates, registers being kept, in which all sales, alienations, and other engagements concerning them, are regularly entered: and any purchaser who omits this precaution, runs the risque of having his bargain superseded, should any subsequent contract take place.

There are three orders of knighthood in Sweden; namely, that of the Polar Star, consisting of twenty-four members; the order of Vasa; and the order of the Sword: which last was instituted in 1772.

The royal titles are, King of the Goths and Vandals, Great Prince of Finland, and Duke of Schonen, Pomeran, &c.

Geographers have generally divided Sweden into seven provinces; namely, Sweden Proper, Gothland, Livonia, Ingria, Finland, Swedish Lapland, and the Swedish islands in the Baltic; but two of these provinces, Livonia and Ingria, have been wrested from the dominions of Sweden, and annexed to those of Russia.

Sweden Proper is bounded on the north by Lapland; on the south by Gothland; on the east by the Gulph of Bothnia; and on the west by the Norwegian mountains: extending seven hundred and ten miles from north to south; and, at a medium, about two hundred

hundred from east to west. This province contains many fertile spots, though the face of the country is in general mountainous and rocky; and it is well watered by several considerable rivers and lakes, which not only add to it's beauty, but likewise to it's convenience and fertility.

Stockholm, the capital of the whole kingdom, which is situated in this province, is two hundred and eighty miles north-east from Copenhagen, three hundred and eighty-seven west from Petersburg, four hundred and sixty-five from Warsaw, and seven hundred and ninety north-east from London. It is partly insular, and partly continental; many houses being built on piles in several little contiguous islands. It is commonly divided into four parts; which, taken collectively, make one of the most extensive towns in Europe. The isle within which the greatest part of Stockholm is inclosed is encompassed by two arms of a river, which issue with vast impetuosity out of the lake of Mæler; the water of which is a little brackish, owing to the vicinity of the sea, but it is neither insalubrious nor unpalatable. About three centuries ago, only two or three fishermen's cottages stood on the present site of Stockholm; but a castle being erected at this place to stop the incursions of the Russians, and the court being removed to the same place, it soon gained a considerable degree of celebrity, and is now populous and handsome. The castle, where the court resides, is a large and commodious structure, containing apartments for most of the great officers; but it possesses few embellishments any way worthy of a monarch's palace.

In this city are nine large churches, built of brick, and covered with copper. The palace of the nobility, where they assemble at the convention of the states, and where their privileges, titles, and records, are deposited, is one of the finest piles of architecture in the kingdom; being adorned externally with marble columns and figures, and internally with pictures and sculptures.

The houses of the burghers are principally raised with brick, except in the suburbs, where they are constructed of timber. To prevent the danger of fire, to which many of the houses, from their materials, are extremely liable, the city is divided into twelve wards; in each of which resides a master with four assistants, who, upon notice of any fire, are immediately to repair thither, and distribute orders to the porters and labourers, who must range themselves under the masters of their respective wards.

The principal officer of the city is the great Stadtholder, who is also a privy-counsellor, and holds a weekly court, in which he is assisted by an under-stadtholder and the bailiff of the castle. Subordinate to him are four Burgomasters; one of whom superintends the distribution of justice; another, trade; a third, the policy of the city; and the fourth, every thing relating to public and private buildings. These have all adequate salaries, and are exempted from the usual impositions laid on the other inhabitants for supporting the government of the city. To defray the expence of a city-guard, and of public buildings and repairs, various taxes are levied upon the inhabitants, proportioned to their respective trades or situations in life.

Stockholm is the grand staple of Sweden, to which all commodities of national growth or manufacture are brought for exportation, and at which the greatest part of the imports

is landed. The haven is extremely capacious, and will contain at once a thousand sail of ships; having a quay near an English mile in length, to which the largest vessels may lay their broadsides. One inconvenience, however, attends the navigation to the city; and this is, it's being situated ten miles from the sea, during which course the river runs very crooked, and different winds are absolutely necessary to waft a vessel up to the haven.

The City and University of Upsal, which stands on the River Sal, forty-two miles north-west from Stockholm, is the next most important place in Sweden Proper. The antiquity of this city is unquestionably great, and formerly the royal family resided there. A large river, annually so hard frozen by the month of February, that a fair is at that time constantly kept on the ice, divides the city into two parts.

Upsal possesses no remarkable structure, either for defence or the use of government; but it is famous for the many superior edifices dedicated to religion and literature.

The cathedral is a very stately pile covered with copper, and contains many regal tombs. In the chapel behind the altar stands the monument of King Gustavus in marble, between the statues of his two queens; all of whom were buried in this place.

This city was originally only an episcopal see, but was created into an archbishopric by Pope Alexander III. at the request of King Charles. Stephen, who departed this life in 1158, was it's first archbishop; from whom, in regular succession, John Magnus, who refused to admit the Lutheran confession at the Reformation, was the twenty-sixth. Since that time the Protestant archbishops have dropped that magnificent parade which the Roman Catholic prelates used to display; and are not only circumscribed in their power, but likewise in their emoluments.

The University is governed by a chancellor, who is always a person of the first rank; a vice-chancellor, who is always the archbishop for the time being; and a rector, chosen out of the professors, of whom there are about twenty. The students generally amount to about eight hundred; fifty of whom are maintained by royal munificence, and some few others by the liberality of persons of distinction. Those whose finances are inadequate to defray the necessary expences of education, spend their vacations in collecting the charity of the dioceses to which they belong, and which is commonly given in such articles as are necessary to subsistence. The students are not constrained to live collegiately, but generally reside in private houses, and commonly observe no other discipline than what their respective dispositions or finances prescribe.

Sweden Proper contains no other towns which claim particular attention. Only we must observe, that in this division lies Dalecarlia, the inhabitants of which are much celebrated for their integrity, bravery, and inviolable attachment to their king and country. Inhabiting a mountainous and barren country, they are inured to toil, hardships, and want; being industrious from necessity, and frugal from situation. Numbers of them are miners; but there is scarcely a man among them who is not an universal mechanic. Their language has a great affinity to the Gothic dialect; and they still retain the modes of living, dress, and customs, of the ancient Swedes. The Runic Calendar is still preserved among them, which they carry about with them as a perpetual almanack.

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The second grand division of Sweden obtains the name of Gothland, and is the most southern in the kingdom. This is a fertile and champaign country, producing corn, cattle, fowl, venison, and fish; and is bounded on the east by the Baltic, on the west by the Lake Wetter, and on the south by the province of Smaland.

The capital is Norkoping, which stands about seventy miles south of Stockholm, on the banks of a stream issuing from the Lake Wetter. This town, which is large and populous, carries on a considerable trade.

Calmar, which lies in this district, is itself the capital of a province, and is situated on a strait of the Baltic formed by the opposite island of Oeland. This city, which is one hundred and sixty miles south of Stockholm, is divided into the Old and New Town; the former of which is famous in history for a deed executed in 1393, by which Margaret Queen of Denmark was recognized sovereign of Sweden and Norway. This transaction obtains the name of the Union of Calmar. Erick, who succeeded Margaret, founded thirteen prebends in this city, and raised the church of Calmar to the rank of a collegiate one. After the disunion of the two kingdoms, Calmar became a frontier town with respect to the Danes, who were in possession of Schonen. It suffered many calamities in war; but its ruin was entirely completed in 1547 by fire, which reduced it to ashes, nothing but the church and a few private dwellings escaping the violence of the conflagration. After this misfortune a new city, which is now large, regular, and handsome, was built within musquet-shot of its ancient site. The artificial fortifications of this city are not very strong, but the natural ones render it almost impregnable. All the avenues to it are full of marshes, or cut off by water from the sea, which abounds with rocks, between which are a vast number of abysses; so that the place is almost inaccessible in boats, on horseback, or on foot. A superintendant of the clergy resides here, who is honoured with a place in the public consistory of the kingdom.

Jonkioping, a town situated on the banks of the Lake Wetter, is distant about sixty miles north-west from Calmar: it carries on a considerable trade by means of the lake, and stands in a luxuriant and agreeable country; but is celebrated neither for its extent nor magnificence.

In this grand division are several more considerable towns, but the only two that deserve particularizing are Gottenburg and Lunden.

Gottenburg is situated on the Categate, on the southern branch of the River Gothelba; which, discharging itself into the sea, forms the harbour of the city. It is two hundred and twenty-five miles south-west of Stockholm; and was built about the year 1607, in the reign of Charles IX. Succeeding sovereigns have conferred many extensive privileges on it, by which it is become a considerable mart, and carries on a large trade with the Dutch. It is a strongly fortified place; and, in 1644, resisted the utmost efforts of the Danes, who endeavoured to reduce it.

An East India Company has been established at Gottenburg; which annually sends several ships to the coast of Coromandel, Malabar, and China. As they have but few articles which they can export, except iron and copper, this trade may not appear to be very beneficial to the Swedes; but the fact is, that the greatest part of the goods imported are smuggled

smuggled into Scotland and Ireland, sometimes to the amount of two hundred and fifty thousand pounds a year; consequently the Swedes reap considerable advantage from this species of traffic, while Britain suffers not only in her trade, but also in her revenues.

Lunden, the capital of the province of Schöonen, situated only a few miles from the sea-shore, stands opposite to Copenhagen, from which it is distant about twenty-four miles. It was formerly an archiepiscopal see; but, in 1658, when the Swedes possessed themselves of the city, that dignity was transferred to Copenhagen. In 1608, it was adorned with an university; which, among other eminent men, produced the celebrated Puffendorff; but this seminary having since been suppressed, and the place become only a bishop's residence, it's ancient splendor is lost, and it's population and buildings are diminished. The principal curiosity now extant is a clock in the cathedral of St. Lawrance, said to be the work of Caspar Bartholinus, which not only shews the hour, day, month, and year, together with all the festivals; but, when the hour is about to strike, two horsemen appear, and encounter, giving each other the same number of blows as the hammer is to repeat on the bell: after which a door opens, and discovers the Blessed Virgin Mary sitting on a throne with Christ in her arms, and the Magi paying their tribute of homage, while two trumpeters proclaim the sound of triumph.

On an eminence near the city is the place where the ancient kings of Sweden used to receive the suffrages of the states when they stood candidates for royalty.

Finland, the next grand division of Sweden, is about three hundred and ninety miles in length from north to south, and two hundred and fifteen from east to west; and has for it's boundaries the Bothnian Gulph, part of Russia, and Swedish Lapland. This country abounds in every necessary of life, and even produces a considerable quantity of grain for exportation. The Fins speak a language peculiar to themselves, which is scarcely intelligible to the Swedes of other provinces; the Lutheran religion, however, is in general prevalent among them.

Till about the middle of the thirteenth century, this was a separate royalty, governed by it's own kings; but, at that period, Erick XI. of Sweden conquered Finland, and annexed it to his hereditary dominions.

Abo, the capital of Finland, and the only place deserving attention, is situated on the Gulph of Bothnia, at the mouth of the River Aurojoki, opposite the Isle of Aland. The town is an episcopal see, and the seat of an university which was founded and endowed by the famous Queen Christina. From the information of a very intelligent traveller, we learn, 'that this is the wretched capital of a barbarous province.' The houses are almost all constructed of wood; and the principal mark of distinction between the superb and the humble edifice consists in it's size, and the addition of an external painting: in other respects, the same stile of architecture is invariably preserved. The university contains hardly a relic of antiquity, scarcely a modern publication, that can engage the attention of any man who has the smallest pretensions to literature. The town, however, derives some trade from it's harbour, in the vicinity of which stands a rock encompassed by water; and, what is very singular, no sooner does any ship pass this surrounded spot, than the needle varies it's polar affection; from which a conjecture originates, that the rock contains a loadstone mine.

Passing over in this place the description of the insular division of Sweden, we come to Swedish Lapland; which, from the singular institutions and manners of the inhabitants, claims a particular share of attention.

Lapland, as far as yet explored, extends from the North Cape, in latitude $71\frac{1}{2}$ north, to the White Sea under the Arctic Circle, and belongs to different powers. Norwegian Lapland has been already mentioned, as included under the government of Wardhus: the eastern parts are subject to Russia; but by far the most valuable and extensive districts belong to Sweden. To endeavour to point out the particular limits and dimensions of each, would be a fruitless and an idle attempt; suffice it to say, that Swedish Lapland comprehends all that country which lies between the Baltic and the mountains which divide Norway from Sweden. Notwithstanding the rudeness of this country, it has several local divisions, which obtain their names from the rivers in their vicinity; but, unless in the Swedish part, which is subject to a prefect, the Laplanders cannot be said to be under any regular government. They are generally supposed to be the descendants of the Finlanders; who, being driven out of their own country, obtained the name of Lappes, which signifies Exiles: but whether this etymology is real or imaginary, it appears highly probable that the first inhabitants were compelled, rather by necessity than choice, to take up their residence in this uninviting clime. Indeed, at first sight, we should be led to conclude, that this country, especially in winter, was scarcely fit to be the habitation of man: rocks and mountains, covered with everlasting snow, occupy extensive tracts, and intersect the face of the country; while barren heaths and sandy deserts in general cover the rest, and scarcely a fertile spot presents itself to relieve the surrounding waste. To heighten this melancholy picture, the intense severity of the winter, the length of the brumal nights, and the immeasurable depth of snow that covers this solitary region, might not only seem sufficient to deter any human creature from fixing his abode here, but even to allay the curiosity of travellers: yet neither of these is the case; the natives appear to be satisfied with their situation, and it has frequently been visited by strangers. M. Maupertuis, however, who was sent by the French king into this country, to determine the figure of the earth at the polar circle, gives such a description of the climate, as can scarcely be read without sensations of pain. ‘In December,’ says he, ‘the snow continually falling, or ready to fall, obscured the sun during the short interval he might have been apparent. In January the cold was increased to that extremity, that the mercurial thermometer of M. Reaumur fell 37 degrees below the freezing point. If we opened the door of a warm room, the external air, rushing in, instantly converted all the tepid vapour into snow, whirling it round in white vortexes. If we ventured abroad, the air seemed to be tearing our breasts to pieces; and the cracking of the wood of which the houses are built, as if split by the frost, continually alarmed us with an increase of cold. The frost, which is always intense, sometimes increases by such violent and sudden fits, as proves almost infallibly fatal to those who are so unfortunate as to be exposed to it; and you may frequently behold people who have lost a leg, or an arm, on such an occasion. The winds seem to blow from all quarters at once, and drive about the snow with such fury, that all the roads are in a moment rendered invisible; and dreadful indeed is the situation of a per-
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'son surprized in the fields by such a storm: his knowledge of the country, and even the mark he may have taken by the trees, cannot avail him; he is blinded by the snow, and in attempting to find his way is generally lost. In short, during the whole winter, the cold was so excessive, that on the seventh of April, at five in the morning, the thermometer was fallen to twenty divisions below the point of freezing, though every afternoon it rose two or three divisions above it; a difference in the height not much less than that which the greatest degree of heat and cold felt at Paris usually produces. Thus, in twenty-four hours, we had all the variety felt in the temperate zones in the compass of a whole year.'

No sooner, however, does summer warm the air, than Lapland is infested with such swarms of flies and gnats of various species, that they darken the sky; and, fixing on every part of the body which is exposed, bite with unremitting fury, and draw blood wherever they settle.

After this description of Lapland, it will appear much less surprizing that it should be but thinly peopled, than that it should be peopled at all. But notwithstanding this aggregate of ills, nature has bestowed on these unpropitious regions several conveniences which mitigate their severity; and certain it is, that the natives taste both happiness and content. The mountains, which rise to a prodigious height, serve to shelter the plains from the violence of the winds; and even their wild irregularity is entertaining to the eye, the alternate succession of hills and vallies exhibiting a delightful variety of prospects; and there are some particular spots which in summer are enchantingly beautiful. The lakes which environ the mountain of Niemi give it the air of an enchanted island in romance: on one side groves of trees rise from the bosom of a plain, smooth and level as the walks of a garden; and on the other are apartments of different sizes, which seem excavated in the rocks by art, and only want regular roofs to render them compleat. The rocks themselves are so perpendicular, so high, and so smooth, that they might be taken for the walls of an unfinished palace, rather than the effect of nature. From the experiments which have been made, it appears that these mountains are inferior to few in the richness of their ores and fossils. they contain mines of silver, lead, copper, and iron; but these can only be worked during the short period of summer, the winter frost rendering the engines totally unfit for use. Beautiful rock-crystals of a surprizing magnitude, and so hard and fine, that, when polished, they resemble real diamonds; amethysts, magnets, native-cinnabar, quicksilver, and other minerals; likewise abound in different parts of Lapland.

Another advantage the Laplanders enjoy, is the delightful and luminous summers which always succeed their rigid winters, when the sun is visible for several weeks together; a phenomenon unknown in temperate climes. Even in winter, when the sky is serene, which is sometimes the case for considerable periods, the radiance of the short-lived sun, the brightness of the moon, the twinkling of the stars, and the effulgent corruscations of the aurora-borealis, afford a sufficient light for most occasions of life. No sooner are the short days closed, than fires of a thousand figures and colours illumine the sky, varying their places and appearances with a velocity past conception. About the middle of December, the ingenious Maupertuis informs us, that he saw a phenomenon of this kind, which,

which, in the midst of all the wonders to which he was every day accustomed, did not fail to excite his admiration. 'To the south, a great part of the sky appeared tinged with so lively a red, that the whole constellation of Orion looked as if it had been dipped in blood. This light, which was at first fixed, soon moved, and changing into other colours, violet and blue, settled in a dome whose top stood a little to the south-west of the zenith. The moon shone bright, but did not in the least efface it. In this country,' continues the philosopher, 'where there are lights of so many various colours, I never saw but two which were red; and such are taken for presages of some great misfortune. After all, when people gaze at these phænomena with an unphilosophic eye, it is not surprizing if they discover in them armies engaged, fiery chariots, and a thousand other prodigies.'

The mountains produce a variety of trees; but the soil being too poor to supply them with proper nourishment, or to permit them to take fixed root after they have grown to a certain height, they become languid and drooping, and are often overfet by the smallest blast of wind. In the vallies, and along the margins of lakes, where the trees find a richer soil, pine, fir, birch, juniper, aspin, alder, willow, and several other trees, arrive at considerable perfection; besides some wholesome vegetables and esculent roots. The pine-tree, however, is the most beneficial production of the vegetable world; as, besides a variety of useful purposes to which the wood is applied, the bark forms the principal farinaceous food of the natives, and proves both a wholesome and nutritious aliment.

Lapland has it's full proportion of beasts, birds, and fishes: bears, wolves, hyænas, beavers, ermines, martens, otters, hares, and foxes, (though some of them are justly accounted noxious animals) when stripped of their furs and skins, supply the natives with cloathing, and furnish a valuable branch of commerce. But, of all other quadrupedes, the rein-deer are the most beneficial; and, indeed, nature seems to have provided this creature as a solace to the Laplander for the privation of most other comforts of life. This animal resembles a stag, only it droops it's head a little, and it's horns project forward: in summer it subsists on leaves and grafs, and in winter on mofs, which it has a wonderful sagacity in discovering under the snow. Indeed, the scantiness of the rein-deer's fare is almost inconceivable, as well as the length of the journies it can perform on such slender support. The Lapland traveller yokes the rein-deer to a kind of sledge shaped like a small boat, in which, after being previously secured against the inclemency of the weather, he is laced down, holding the reins in one hand, and a kind of pole in the other to keep the carriage clear of the ice and snow. The deer is extremely tractable in harnessing, which is no sooner finished, than he sets out; and, continuing the journey with prodigious and unremitted speed, gives the driver little trouble in managing the reins. At night this useful creature not only finds it's own provender, but likewise often assists to support it's master with it's milk. It seems to be directed by a kind of instinct in the choice of the roads, and the readiness with which it stops when arrived at the place of it's destination. In short, were we to recount every circumstance related by the credulous concerning this animal, fiction might well appear to usurp the place of truth.

The flesh of the rein-deer, whether fresh or dried, is a well-tasted aliment; the skins form excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body; their milk and cheese are sweet and

and nutritive; and their intestines and tendons supply the place of thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields and woods they may be shot as other game; but the tame rein-deer are always private property, and secured in the possession of their owners: indeed, in the number of these creatures the Laplander's wealth is supposed to consist, and not in the extent of territory, or the quantity of gold.

The mountains, woods, and rivers, abound with wild-fowl; the most valuable of which are the bustard, heath-cock, grouse, pheasant, partridge, snow-bird, swan, wild-goose, and wild-duck; besides which, every species of aquatic fowl, and birds of prey, that breed in the hyperborean regions, are seen in Lapland in prodigious flights.

The fisheries not only copiously supply the exigencies of the natives, but enable them to sell considerable quantities to their neighbours; nor are pearls wanting in the Lapland rivers, which are held in the highest estimation.

The Laplanders are of a brown and swarthy complexion, having black hair, broad faces, and hollow cheeks. Their size is much more diminutive than that of the southern Europeans; for this climate seems not only unpropitious to vegetative, but likewise, in many instances, to animal life. The human race, in particular, seldom arrive at mental or corporeal perfection; though some indications of invention, skill, and address, have been recorded of individuals.

The upper-dress of both sexes is made of skins with the hair on, shaped like a common frock, and girt round the waist with a belt; their breeches depend to their ancles, and their cap covers the neck and shoulders. The height of female ornament consists in a kind of pewter wire, with which they embroider the bosoms of their jackets, their girdles, and the edges of their caps. Neither sex have adopted the use of linen; nor is there any distinction between the dress of the men and the women, but that the latter is somewhat longest. A bag generally depends from their girdles, to contain their money, rings, toys, a knife, and other articles.

With respect to their modes of living and domestic economy, the Laplanders consist of two distinct tribes, the Mountain and the Forest Laplanders. The former take up their abodes among the mountains, and principally depend on their herds of rein-deer; the latter roam among the woods, and subsist on what fish and game they can procure. Both tribes are esteemed good marksmen; but, except to gratify the necessary calls of nature, they shew the most perfect aversion to all mental or bodily exertions. Taken collectively, these people afford a phenomena in European history: inhabiting a barren country, they live contentedly without plowing, sowing, planting, spinning, weaving, or manufacturing; they have scarcely any ideas of subordination, nor have they ever felt the effects of civil broils, or foreign wars.

The Lapland tongue is harsh and dissonant, but seems radically to come from Finland. Learning has not yet made the least progress; nor do the inhabitants, as we have already hinted, practise any arts but such as are necessarily connected with the means of subsistence.

The Christian religion has been introduced into this country by missionaries from different parts of Scandinavia; but the people in general are grossly ignorant, and shew few other marks of having embraced that persuasion, than those of being baptized and called

by Christian names. Indeed, the majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries as are to be found among the most unenlightened Pagans; and so absurd, that in general they are unworthy of mention, were it not that the number and peculiarities of their superstitions have induced mariners to believe that they are skilful in divination. Much, indeed, has been related of the sorceries practised by these people; but fame has magnified their skill beyond the bounds of simple veracity. Almost every body has heard of their magic drums; but they are so cautious in the use of them, (detection being certain death) that few of their own countrymen know any thing about them. However, these magical drums are made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, covered at one end with a skin, on which a variety of figures are delineated, such as the Pagan gods, the apostles, sun, moon, and stars; and on these one or two brass rings being placed, and the drum beaten with a little hammer, the rings dance over the figures, and according to their progressive motion the forcerer pretends to divine. These operations are generally exhibited for gain; and such dupes are the sailors who navigate the northern sea to the arts of the impostors, that they frequently purchase a magic-cord of them, containing a number of knots, to be opened according to the magician's direction, for the purpose of obtaining what wind they please. This piece of deception, however, is not peculiar to Lapland; it is practised likewise on the banks of the Red Sea, where the forcerer is very extravagant in his demands for the talisman which contains the virtue of commanding the winds.

The Laplanders still preserve many traces of Druidical institutions: they believe in the transmigration of the soul, and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain Genii called Jeuhles, to whom they allot a residence in the air, and ascribe extraordinary powers over human actions. These Genii being supposed to have neither form nor substance, are not represented by any particular similitude: but the Teutonic gods, many of which are still worshipped by the Laplanders, have images erected to their honour.

As the nuptial contracts of the Laplanders depend entirely on the pleasure of the parents, age and infirmities are often coupled to youth and vigour, in defiance of the sacred dictates of voluntary affection and genuine inclination. Polygamy, however, has never been admitted among them; and marriages between near relations, and even intimate friends, are entirely discountenanced. When a parent has determined to select a bride for his son, he takes him, attended by some of his nearest relatives, to the habitation of the intended father-in-law, being always first provided with an introductory present of brandy. This liquor is generally the most powerful advocate, and the ready acceptance of it is deemed a sure presage of success; but if the treaty be afterwards suspended, or entirely broke off, the relations of the young woman are obliged to pay for all the brandy used during courtship. When the marriage is absolutely agreed on, the parents of the bridegroom covenant to bestow a particular portion on him in money and goods, and the relations of the bride must find an equivalent in furniture and reindeer. The poorer sort, however, marry without any of these previous ceremonies, the relations of both parties usually contributing what they can towards the establishment of the new-married pair, without any particular stipulations. The solemnization of marriages is performed

performed at church; but the affected timidity of the bride, who must sometimes be drawn thither by force, is more curious than any rite of superstitious observance on the occasion.

Children are inured to hardships from their infancy. As soon as born, they are securely laced up in little cradles; which, being suspended in the smoke near the top of the tent, are rocked by pulling two cords dependent from the sides. They are early initiated in the means of procuring a subsistence; but all ranks shew a rooted aversion to sending their offspring to places of mental improvement.

The commerce of the natives is confined within very narrow limits; their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, and a few other articles; for which they receive woollen-cloths, copper, tin, several sorts of cutlery goods, spirituous liquors, and tobacco. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit to adventurers. The Laplanders carry the produce of their country to the Finland and Norway fairs, travelling in a kind of caravan with their wives and families. Some idea may be formed of the medium of commerce they use, from considering that fifty squirrel-skins, or one fox-skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, are estimated at one rixdollar.

No computation can be made of the public revenues arising from this country, the greatest part of them being allotted for the maintenance of the clergy; and as the Laplanders, during the summer months, are in an itinerant state, they pay certain tributes to the Russian and Danish crowns, in whose dominions they sometimes fix their tents, though in general they acknowledge the King of Sweden for their rightful sovereign, and conform to the Swedish laws. With regard, however, to the security of property and private rights, few disputes have ever happened; and, indeed, the judges who hold particular courts have no other means of enforcing their decrees, than by explaining and recommending those unalterable dictates of right and wrong, which are felt with full energy in the most unenlightened breasts.

Sweden is famous in the historic page for being the native country of the fierce and warlike Goths, whose emigrations effected the most singular and rapid revolutions on the European continent that are to be met with in the annals of the world. Passing, however, over the wild romances of the Swedish historians in the early ages, who dignify their native country with the title of the Paramount State of Scandinavia, which included Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, we shall observe, that the introduction of Christianity into Sweden, by Ansgarius Bishop of Bremen, in 829, seems to present the first period of authentic information. From this æra, for several ages, the Scandinavian history in general is confused and uninteresting; being replete only with murders, massacres, and devastations; and that of Sweden, in particular, seems destitute of all consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes an appearance more regular and veritable, and furnishes topics of more useful and entertaining speculation. At this time, however, the government was far from being clearly ascertained, or uniformly administered: the crown was elective; though in this election the rights of blood, and priority of birth, were not altogether disregarded. The nobles possessed the most considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which principally consisted in land; commerce being
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either imperfectly known, or totally neglected; and even agriculture itself, which in a climate not very propitious, and a soil not very luxuriant, might be conceived to be absolutely necessary to subsistence, was in a rude and unprofitable state. The clergy, especially those of dignified rank, from the universal veneration in which they were held by the hyperborean nations, had acquired an influence in all public affairs, inconsistent with the nature of their office, and had obtained the possession of such an immense extent of territory, that they vied with the nobility in affluence and splendor. These two ranks of men, enjoying all the landed property, formed a council called the Senate, which decided on all public affairs. This system of government was extremely unfavourable to national prosperity. The commonalty were continually engaged in the dissensions between the prelates and the nobles, or between the latter and their sovereign. In defence of these they were drained of the little riches they possessed; their lives were often sacrificed to gratify private ambition, or to revenge private injuries; and the whole country, from the unlucky concurrence of internal disasters, was exposed to the inroads and oppressions of a vigilant and inveterate enemy. The Danes, from the vicinity of their situation, and the natural antipathy that subsisted between the two nations, were always ready to avail themselves of the dissensions of Sweden, and to subject to their power a country weakened and exhausted by its own intestine broils. In this deplorable situation Sweden remained for several ages; sometimes under the nominal subjection of its own prince, and sometimes united to Denmark: in either case equally insulted, humbled, and oppressed.

About the year 1374, Margaret daughter of Valdemar King of Denmark, and widow of Huguin King of Norway, a princess of an ambitious disposition, and an enlarged and penetrating soul, reigned in both these kingdoms. By her abilities in conducting and executing the greatest and most complicated designs, she obtained the appellation of the Semiramis of the North; because, like that illustrious princess, she found means to reduce, by arms or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and, having projected the famous union of Calmar, became Queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, which in future was to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and whose residence was to be divided among them all. Christian II. the last Danish king, who by virtue of this compact was also King of Sweden, by the most barbarous policy attempted to render himself absolute, and brought down destruction on himself and his views. The means by which he attempted to effectuate his designs were as horrid as could well be conceived; he laid a plot for exterminating all the principal nobility in one night, which inhuman design was actually carried into execution on the 8th of November 1510. Of all those who were qualified, either by rank or abilities, to oppose the despotic views of Christian, no one remained in Sweden but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince of the ancient regal line of that country, who had already on several occasions signalized his arms against the King of Denmark. The prince was immediately proscribed, and an immense price laid on his head; and the Danish soldiers, enjoined by duty, and stimulated by the proffered rewards, exerted themselves to the utmost in his detection; but, fortune favouring his natural dexterity and address, he eluded all their attempts, and escaped in the habit of a peasant to the mountains of Dalecarlia.

To enumerate all the dangers and fatigues this young hero underwent, would far exceed the bounds which we must prescribe ourselves: sometimes he was compelled to work in the mines to prevent a discovery; at others, the few friends in whom he reposed confidence, betrayed him to his enemies, from whom he suffered several miraculous escapes; but, after surmounting a thousand difficulties, and incurring a thousand dangers, he engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to espouse his cause, and fight the tyrant of their country under his banners. His patriotic views were crowned with success; and Sweden again, by his means, acquired her former independence. The ancient nobility being almost annihilated, and every person who had a prior claim to the sovereignty removed by the cruel artifice of Christian; to reward a valour they admired, and a person to whom they were attached by the warmest ties of regard, the Swedish army created Gustavus first administrator, and afterwards king; in which designation the nation united with uncommon tokens of applause. The circumstances with which Gustavus mounted the throne were peculiarly favourable, and such as allowed him a consequence and independence superior to that of any former prince. The massacre of the nobles had rid him of those proud, haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, however, still possessed undiminished power, and of consequence were extremely dangerous; but the opinions of Luther beginning to be promulged, and to prevail in the north, gave Gustavus an opportunity of changing the religious system of his country; and, in the year 1544, the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was prohibited under the severest penalties, which have never yet been mitigated or relaxed. By these revolutions Sweden exchanged a Gothic aristocracy, empoisoned by religious tyrannies, (the most turbulent and the most wretched of all governments) for a regular monarchy, headed by a patriot king. The happy effects of this change soon became conspicuous; arts and manufactures were now either wholly introduced, or materially improved; navigation and commerce began to smile; learning and humanization quickly followed in succession; and a kingdom known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to bear a considerable weight in the scale of political consequence.

Having succeeded thus far, Gustavus next entailed the crown upon his issue, with the voluntary consent of the states: and, after a glorious reign, died in 1559; while his eldest son Eric was preparing to embark for England, to espouse Queen Elizabeth.

The only act in which Gustavus shewed a want of policy and consideration, was in dividing his kingdom among his children, which in a manner entailed misery upon his offspring. Eric, who succeeded his father, by his miserable and causeless jealousies of his brothers, drove them to the necessity of taking up arms in their own defence; and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John, who succeeded him, entered into a ruinous war with Russia; and attempting, by the advice of his queen, to re-introduce the Catholic religion into Sweden, threw the whole kingdom into terrible distractions. His views on religion were totally frustrated; and, after seeing his son Sigismund elevated to the Polish throne, he died in 1592.

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Charles, the younger brother of the deceased sovereign, and son of Gustavus, was immediately chosen administrator of Sweden; but being an active and zealous Protestant, his nephew Sigismund, who was a virulent Papist, endeavoured to drive him from his administration; in which intentions persevering for some time without effect, the states of Sweden passed an act, by which he and his family were excluded from the succession, and the sovereignty was conferred on Charles. Through the practices of Sigismund, who was warlike, factious, and powerful, the reign of Charles was turbulent and uneasy: the Danes were encouraged to invade Sweden, but their progress was effectually checked by the great Gustavus Adolphus, heir-apparent to the Swedish crown, and who was then a minor.

This prince, on the demise of his father, which happened in 1611, was declared of age by the states, though then only eighteen years old. Immediately on his accession, by the intrigues of the Poles, the Danes, and the Russians, he found himself embroiled with all his neighbours, and surrounded by difficulties, which at last he gloriously surmounted. He nearly made himself master of Russia, but the extreme tenacity of the natives to their independence rendered his projects abortive: however, he recovered Livonia, and possessed himself of four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod; which, with a considerable sum of money, were confirmed to him by a peace concluded in 1617, under the mediation of James I. of England.

Inspired by repeated successes, and assisted by the councils of La Gardie, one of the best generals and most consummate statesmen of his age, the ideas of Gustavus began to extend. His troops, by perpetual wars, were become the best disciplined and the most warlike of any in Europe; he was himself fond of military glory, and it is said he entertained views of an ambitious nature upon the German empire itself: certain it is, that the princes of the house of Austria were early jealous of his heroic and enterprising spirit. In 1627, he laid siege to Dantzic; but his attempt failed by the sudden rise of the Vistula: however, his military character did not suffer in the least from this disgrace; he was immediately placed by the Protestant cause at the head of the confederacy which was formed to humble the house of Austria. From this period his life was one continued series of wonderful events and rapid successes. He took Riga, and entered Poland, where he was victorious: from thence he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the celebrated Austrian general Count Tilly, who till then was deemed invincible, and over-ran all Franconia. On the defeat of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian general of the highest military character, was appointed to command against Gustavus; and the gallant monarch at length fell on the plain of Lutzen, in the arms of victory. Had he fortunately survived, a final period would in all probability have been put to the Austrian grandeur.

Gustavus Adolphus was one of those rare mortals, who unite the virtues that refine and exalt humanity to the abilities of a great warrior and statesman. His consequence in the cabinet and the field never appeared so fully as after his death. The names of Duke Bernard, Banner, Torstenfon, Wrangel, and others, trained up by him to the arts of war, can never be forgotten in the annals of Europe. By the most astonishing displays of valour and success, they maintained the glory the Swedish army had acquired; and, together with the Chancellor Oxenstiern, who was as consummate a politician as he was a warrior,

warrior, managed the affairs of Sweden with so much prudence and fortitude, during the minority of Christina, daughter of the deceased sovereign, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new system.

Christina, who was only six years old when her father was killed, received an education suited to her high rank and dignity; but her genius, though fine, took an uncommonly romantic turn. Descartes, Salmasius, and other learned men, were invited to her court; and she became rather a patroness of genius, than a protectress of a mighty nation: but though she was an excellent judge in all the polite arts, and possessed the most polished taste, she has been stigmatized as being illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. Having early formed a resolution never to give her hand in marriage, in 1654 she resigned her crown to Charles Gustavus her cousin, son to the Duke of Deux Ponts. This prince soon displayed his military abilities in his engagements with the Poles, whose king John Casimir he drove into Silesia, and obliged them to take an oath of allegiance to his own government, which they as quickly violated. Against the Danes he was likewise extremely successful; but dying of a fever in 1660, he left his son and successor Charles XI. only in his fifth year; a circumstance which induced the guardians of the young prince to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes ceded the islands of Bornholm and Drontheim in Norway. By the interposition of Russia and Holland, all differences were amicably adjusted; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe for several years.

When Charles came of age, he received a subsidy from Lewis XIV. of France; but soon after discovering the ambitious intentions of that monarch, he entered into an alliance with England and Holland against him. After this, he again sided with France against the house of Austria; but, receiving a signal defeat at Felin-Bellin in Germany, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The Elector of Brandenburg possessed himself of all Swedish Pomerania, the Bishop of Munster over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wismar and several places in Schonen: they, however, were afterwards defeated; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain's, which followed that of Nimeguen, recovered the greater part of his losses. The kingdom being then restored to tranquillity, he espoused Ulrica Leonora, the King of Denmark's sister; but, employing this interval of peace to the basest purposes, he studied only to enslave and beggar his people, that he might have an opportunity of rendering his power despotic, and his army formidable. The states lost their power and their consequence; and the brave Count Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, was condemned to lose his head, and his right-hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his countrymen; a sentence which would certainly have been executed, had he not saved himself by flight. In short, Charles rendered himself not only dreaded by his subjects, but formidable to the other princes of Europe; and, under his mediation, the conferences for a general pacification were opened at Ryswic. He died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son the illustrious Charles XII.

This hero will ever be famous in history for his uncommon magnanimity, more than those qualities which ought to dignify a monarch. His father's will had fixed the age of

of his majority to eighteen; but it was set aside for an earlier date by the policy of Count Piper, who thus ingratiated himself so far with the young monarch, that he became his prime-minister. Soon after Charles's accession, the Kings of Denmark and Poland, and the Czar of Muscovy, despising his juvenility, and forming a mean opinion of his abilities, entered into a powerful confederacy against him. However, he boldly made head against them all; and, besieging Copenhagen, dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the Duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. At this time the Czar was ravaging Ingria at the head of 80,000 men, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not amount to more than 20,000 men; but such was his impatience to engage, that he advanced at the head of only 8000, and entirely routing the main body of the Russian army, raised the siege of Narva. Such successes, with only a handful of troops, made the Russians consider him as a preternatural being, or at least a dealer in necromancy: they could not conceive it possible for a youth, unpractised in war, and unsupported with a powerful army, to attempt, and to conquer, in the manner he did, without a reliance on some invisible agent. Charles having thus begun his career of martial glory, marched into Saxony; where his achievements equalled, if they did not surpass, those of his predecessor Gustavus Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus King of Poland, and set up Stanislaus in his stead: but he tarnished all his laurels by a piece of inhuman barbarity on the brave Count Patkul, who suffered a death equally horrid and ignominious. In short, his name at this time carried such terror along with it, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and, among others, by the Great Duke of Marlborough, in the name of his Royal Mistress, in the full career of victory. Yet, with all these martial achievements, he can only be considered as an illustrious madman. His stubbornness and implacable disposition were such, that he gratified them at the expence of prudence, virtue, and honour. In the battle of Pultowa, which he inconsiderately fought in his march to dethrone the Czar, he lost more than he had gained by all his former victories; his brave army was either taken or cut to pieces, and himself forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His frantic defence with only 300 Swedes against 30,000 Turks, proves that he possessed a soul divested of every particle of fear; he was however obliged to submit, though the Turks found it convenient for their affairs to present him with his liberty. Still, however, misfortunes had not taught him caution, nor had defeat cured his military enthusiasm; for, after his return into his kingdom, he continued to prosecute his revenge against Denmark with unabating fury, till he was killed by a cannon-shot, at the siege of Fredericshal in Norway, in the year 1718, being only thirty-six years old. The peculiarity of character which distinguished this prince, is strongly depicted by M. de Voltaire. No dangers, however sudden or imminent, ever occasioned in him the least dismay, even when they have shaken the constancy of the firmest among his followers: he seems, in short, to have been a man divested of the smallest particle of fear; and the manner in which he is related to have endured cold, hunger, and fatigue, shew him to be a prodigy of strength as well as courage. His rapid successes against the combined force of Denmark, Poland, and Russia, prove him to be no ordinary man; but though they astonished all Europe, they were fatal in their consequences to the

the kingdom he governed. A violent resentment against the unprovoked attacks made upon him in his early years, led him to meditate enterprizes against his enemies, extravagant and impracticable in their nature; and the cool and undismayed perseverance of his great adversary Peter the Great at length triumphed over his ill-directed ardour.

After Charles's death, his sister Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse, mounted the throne, by the free election of the states; having first renounced all pretensions to arbitrary power, by an instrument drawn up and signed in solemn form by herself and husband. The first measure taken by this royal pair was to make a permanent peace with all their neighbours; in accomplishing which, they made considerable sacrifices to the other northern potentates. However, in 1738, the French, by forming a dangerous party in this kingdom, under the name of the Hats, not only destroyed its internal quiet, but likewise involved it in a ruinous war with Russia. This being at last amicably settled, their Swedish majesties, who had no children, set about regulating the succession to the throne. Four competitors appeared for this high dignity; the Duke of Holstein Gottorp; Prince Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, nephew of the king; the Prince of Denmark; and the Duke of Deux-Ponts. The Duke of Holstein, son of the queen's eldest sister, would certainly have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, in order to qualify himself for mounting the Russian throne, to which he was presumptive heir: upon which the Czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, except an insignificant district in Finland, if the Swedes would accede to the reception of Adolphus Frederick, Bishop of Lubec, and uncle to the Duke of Holstein, as their hereditary prince and successor to the throne. This offer was too pregnant with advantages to be refused; and a treaty was accordingly concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, which was so firmly adhered to by the Czarina, that the king of Denmark thought proper to acquiesce.

The prince elect espoused the Princess Ulrica, third sister to the King of Prussia; and, in 1751, entered on the possession of his new dignity, which proved to him a source of perpetual inquietude and vexation. Through a strange medley of affairs and party views, the French had obtained vast influence in all the deliberations of the Swedish senate, and had rendered them little better than pensioners to that crown. By the intrigues of the senators, Adolphus was compelled to take part in the late war against Prussia; but as such a step was not only disagreeable to the nation in general, but likewise to the king himself, the Swedes never made so mean an appearance in war: however, after several spiritless campaigns, a peace was concluded, which left matters as they stood at the commencement of the contest. Adolphus died dispirited, in 1771, after a turbulent reign of twenty years; and was succeeded by Gustavus, his eldest son, then twenty-five years of age.

The accession of this prince to the throne, with the prepossessions of the people strongly in his favour, presented a favourable opportunity for extending the power of the crown, by reducing that of the senate. Aristocracy naturally and rapidly degenerates into despotism; the yoke of which is more intolerable to a people, in proportion as the oppressions of a number of tyrants are more grievous than those of only one. Gustavus found his

people divided into two great political parties, distinguished by the names of Caps and Hats; the former espousing the interest of the court, and the latter that of the country. By the most masterly strokes of policy, and the most profound dissimulation, he endeavoured to circumvent and destroy the influence of the senate; the army was devoted to his interest, and his two brothers were entrusted with principal commands. While the king was amusing the senate at Stockholm, in 1772, with the most warm and specious professions of disinterested patriotism, an insurrection of the military broke out at Christianstadt, set on foot by one Hellichins, a military officer commanding there, who justified the outrages of his party, by making a plea of the tyranny and oppression of the governing powers. Prince Charles, the king's brother, who was purposely in the vicinity, made this a pretence to assemble the troops under his command; whilst Prince Frederick Augustus put himself at the head of those in the neighbourhood of Estrogothia. Alarmed at these proceedings, the senate could not conceal their fears; but the king, with the most consummate dissimulation, expressing his resentment against the insurgents, and his zeal to suppress them, found means, without suspicion, to station the military force in Stockholm so as to surround the senate-house; by which he effectually controuled the deliberations carrying on there. In this dilemma, the senate finding themselves totally abandoned by the soldiery, who unanimously took an oath of allegiance to the king, and incapable of acting, Gustavus was enabled in one morning to accomplish a great and almost unparalleled revolution, and to deprive an extensive nation of its liberties without bloodshed, without noise, without tumult, and without opposition; the people flocking together with as much vacant curiosity as if to behold some holiday sport.

The king then repairing to the Castle, to which the foreign ministers had retired, informed them that, with tears in his eyes, he had acceded to the measure of which they were witnesses, for the security of his own person, the welfare of his people, and the maintenance of true liberty; each of which, he assured them, was equally in danger. Next morning he received the oaths of the magistrates, the burghers, and the college of Stockholm, by which they were bound to obey him only; and a book was opened in one of the apartments of the palace, wherein those who were willing to take an oath of allegiance were to subscribe their names. The senators and great officers who refused to comply were immediately confined; and soon after acquainted by his majesty, that they must come to a final resolution, either to accede to the new form of government, or quit the kingdom for ever.

The following day being appointed for abolishing the old form of government, and confirming the new, the king assembled all the states in one grand council for that purpose. Such decisive measures were taken for the accomplishment of this great act, that nothing was left to blind chance or the capricious turns of fortune: the senate-house and palace were early in the morning invested on every side with troops, all the garrison was under arms, and cannon were planted in the great court of the hall where the states were destined to assemble. Being thus surrounded with objects of terror, it could scarcely be supposed that any would possess sufficient fortitude to oppose the propositions which were to be made to them, however repugnant to their feelings or their liberty.

erty. The king opened the scene, by entering the hall in his regalia, himself making the signal for silence, an office usually executed by a senator, none of which illustrious body were in the present assembly.

Gustavus then harangued the states in a long speech, in which he depicted the deplorable situation to which the nation was reduced, by the two great factions which divided the people; that by this means they were severed, as it were, into two separate nations, who united only in mangling their country; that streams of blood had been shed sometimes by one party, and sometimes by another, and that the people were always the sacrifices to quarrels in which they had but little concern; that the only end of the rulers had been to fortify their own power, and that all their deliberations had been adapted to that purpose; that where the law was clear, the letter of it had been perverted, and where it had been palpably repugnant, it had been broken through; that thus the noblest of the rights of men had been transformed into an insupportable aristocratical tyranny in the hands of the ruling party, which was itself enslaved, and led at pleasure by a very small number of it's body; that the notice of a new assembly of the states made every one tremble; and that, far from considering how the affairs of the nation might be best transacted, they were only busied in getting together a majority for their party, that they might be screened from the insolence and lawless violence of the other.

The king then laid, or rather insinuated, a charge of the blackest dye; and this was no less than that the states were actually under foreign influence, and that the basest means had been employed to enslave the nation.

Having finished this address, he made a solemn renunciation, on oath, of all absolute sovereignty and power; after which he ordered the new form of government to be read to the states by the secretary of revision. This piece, which is of considerable length, consists of fifty-seven articles, the most essential of which are the following: that the king is to have the sole election of the senate; that he is to call the states together whenever he pleases, and to separate them also when he pleases, after they have at any time continued sitting three months; that the contributions are to be granted by the states, but if not voted within three months, the former are to remain; that in case of invasion, or urgent necessity, the king is to be permitted to levy some taxes till the states can be assembled; that when the states are assembled, they are to confine their deliberations to those subjects which the king lays before them; and that the king is to have the sole disposition of the army, navy, and finances, and of all employments civil, military, and ecclesiastical.

To give validity to these new regulations, the king dismissed all his old senators, and conferred that dignity on fifteen noblemen, whom he knew to be attached to his interest. His next step was to encrease the odium thrown on the states, by making them the cause of the famine which then prevailed; and to evince his paternal regard for his subjects, he directed that ten thousand measures of meal, of twenty pounds each, should be distributed among the common people.

The subsequent meetings of the diet were productive of nothing but abject compliances with the king's requisitions; they enabled him to raise extraordinary supplies upon particular



is generally temperate and settled, the weather being less variable, either in summer or in winter, than in most of the hyperborean regions. In Poland are several lakes, some of which abound in fish; but the most remarkable of these are the lake of Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzesty; and Birals, or the White Lake; which last is said to possess the extraordinary quality of dyeing those who bathe in it of a swarthy complexion.

The principal of the Polish rivers are, the Duna, called Cubo by the Poles, which has its source in Russia, and after running through Lithuania and Prussia, discharges itself into the Baltic; the Memel, in Polish Niemen, which rising in the palatinate of Novogrodec, and devolving itself through Lithuania and Prussia, falls into the Baltic; the Weisel, or Vistula, in Polish the Wisla, which issues from the Carpathian mountains, and after receiving several considerable streams in its course through Poland, at last enters the Baltic; the Neister, which rises in a lake among the Carpathian mountains, and dividing Poland from Moldavia, falls into the Black Sea; and the Neiper, or Boristhenes of antiquity, which has its source in the mountains of Budin in Russia, and after a course of near a thousand miles, discharges itself into the Black Sea.

Poland being in general a level country, is well adapted for agriculture; hence the soil is exceedingly fertile in corn, as appears from the vast quantities annually sent down the Vistula to Dantzic for exportation. In Podolia, Volhinia, the Ukraine, and the province of Red Russia, little culture or manure is required to produce a plentiful crop; and even in Great and Little Poland, where agriculture calls for some labour and attention, the harvest amply rewards the toil of the industrious peasant. Lithuania, Polish Prussia, and Samogitia, are likewise abundantly fertile in grain; besides which, the last-mentioned province produces vast quantities of flax and hemp. The pastures of Poland are rich beyond conception, especially in Podolia, where the grass grows to such a luxuriant height, that the horns of the cattle are alone seen while they graze in the meadows.

With respect to the vegetable productions of this country, there are herbs, roots, and garden-stuff, in abundance; and also fruits of the highest flavour; but grapes seldom arrive at sufficient perfection to make good wines. The Polish manna is collected, in the months of June and July, from an herb which grows very plentifully in the meadows and marshy grounds. The Polish berries, called kermes, are found adhering to the leaves, stem, and branches, of a kind of ever-green of the oak genus; and are always gathered in May, before they are fully ripe. These berries are of a spherical form, as large as a pea, being smooth, shining, and full of a mucilaginous juice of a beautiful red colour. From the most attentive enquiries, naturalists pronounce this production to be the nest of a small fly or worm, which pricking the bark or leaf in order to deposit its eggs, raises a little tumour, which by degrees fills with a red pulp, impregnated with the numerous animalcula.

Woods of oak, beech, pine, and fir, abound in Poland, particularly in the interior parts, where timber grows in such large quantities, that the houses are wholly constructed with it.

A variety of gems and precious stones are found in this country; such as amethysts, topazes, sapphires, rubies, agates, chalcedonies, carnelians, onyxes, opals, jaspers,

and rock crystal. It likewise affords Moscovy glass, talc, allum, saltpetre, amber, spar, quicksilver, lapis calaminaris, iron, lead, and some tin, with inexhaustible quantities of salt which are hewn out of the rocks in large blocks.

The Polish forests contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, wild horses, wolves, boars, elks, and deer. A species of wolf resembling a hart, with white spots on its belly and legs, is peculiar to this country, and affords excellent furs; but the elk, which forms the principal delicacy at the feasts of the opulent, is at once the most common and most extraordinary animal of Poland. The body of this creature resembles that of the deer, but it is much longer and thicker; its legs are high; its feet broad and cloven; and its horns large, rough, and broad, like those of a wild goat. Naturalists have observed that, on dissecting the head of an elk, it is generally found to contain several large flies, the brains being at the same time almost totally consumed; and, indeed, it is a well attested observation, that this poor animal, towards the winter, is attacked by these insects, which attempt, through the ears, to take up their winter quarters. This circumstance is supposed to affect the elk with the falling sickness, which render it far less difficult to be caught than would otherwise be the case.

The Poles make a very respectable personal appearance, being generally of a good stature, of a fair complexion, and a well-proportioned shape. They cut their hair short, and shave themselves so as to leave large whiskers; which, united with their natural stately mien, give them great gravity of countenance.

These people have long been celebrated for personal strength, intrepidity, and longevity. They enjoy an uninterrupted flow of good health; and, by inuring themselves to manly exercises, and the use of the cold bath, acquire great bodily vigour. The nobles have been characterized as open, affable, liberal, and hospitable; polite to strangers, rigid to their dependents, punctilious in point of honour, and vain, ostentatious, and magnificent, in their manner of living, apparel, and equipage: hence, though passionately fond of liberty, they spend their lives in a perpetual state of servitude to their profusion and necessities. Poor in the midst of a fertile country, they despise the idea of improving their fortunes by trade; and are perhaps the only people on earth who have provided by an express law against raising a maritime power. As to the vulgar, they are mean, mercenary, ignorant, and extremely indigent. But though these are the general leading features of this nation, it would be unjust not to suppose that there are many, even in the lower walks of life, who are distinguished for their probity, learning, and humanity.

The dress of the Poles is in many respects different from that of other Europeans. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and over it a kind of gown lined with furs and girded with a sash, the sleeves of which fit as close as those of a waistcoat; and their breeches are wide, and made in one piece with their stockings: they cover their heads with fur caps, and instead of shoes wear Turkey-leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like a crescent. Their shirts are destitute of collars and wrist-bands, and they neither use stocks nor neckcloths. They carry a pole-axe, sabre, or cutlass, by their sides, on all occasions; and, when on horseback, they wear, over all, a short cloak covered with furs both internally and externally. Persons

of

of rank wear fables; others, the skins of lions, tigers, and leopards; while the peasants content themselves with an unshorn sheep-skin for their winter dress, and in summer with a thick coarse cloth; but the use of linen has never yet been adopted among them.

The dress of the women nearly resembles that of the men; but some people of fashion of both sexes affect the French or English modes. The Polish ladies are amiable, sprightly and witty, and passionately fond of music and dancing; but they are at the same time remarkably modest, and extremely submissive to their husbands.

The houses of the Poles consist chiefly of ground floors, these people having an almost insuperable aversion to living or sleeping above stairs. The dwelling-house generally fronts the gate, the kitchens and offices occupying one side, and the stables the other. Wood is the usual material in building, though there are some houses erected of brick, or stone, in the Italian style of architecture; but the finest buildings in this country, though some of them are richly furnished, are destitute of their principal ornament, having seldom any gardens or orchards, which even in less fertile soils are not often neglected.

The habitations of the peasants are mean in every respect, being only circular huts built with poles, and left open at the top to emit the smoke and admit the light. They are covered with thatch, or boards; and, as they frequently consist of only one room, the master, his family, and cattle, repose in peaceful association.

The inns of this country are few and incommodious, being only long stables raised with boards, and covered with straw, without windows or furniture; and having a chamber at one end for the reception of travellers, generally so full of vermin, that a night's lodging among the horses is deemed preferable. Foreigners are necessitated to carry provisions with them; and, when in want of a supply, they have recourse to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with the necessaries required.

The usual mode of travelling among the Poles is on horseback; and so fond are they of this mode of conveyance, that they will not take the shortest journey without it: they are so hardy, that they frequently sleep on the ground in frost and snow without any bed or covering, or appearing to feel any sort of inconvenience.

To the account which has already been given of the love of splendor prevalent among the Polish nobility, it may be proper to add, that when they sit down to dinner or supper, they have their trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to attend them, all serving with the most profound respect; for though the whole nobility of Poland are held to be on a level, as having votes in the diet, yet wealth creates a manifest distinction, and those who are in indigent circumstances are frequently compelled to serve the rich. Their patron, however, in these cases, treats them with great apparent civility, and permits the senior to sit with him at table with his cap off; and each of them has a menial servant to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family.

At entertainments the Poles lay neither knives nor forks, it being usual for every guest to provide himself previously with these necessary implements: and no sooner has the company sat down at table, than all the doors are shut, and no intrusion is permitted till they break up. Those who are invited, introduce their servants into the same room, and.

and even give them meat from their own plates, which they eat standing behind their masters chairs. The cloth being removed, the ladies retire, and the gentlemen sit down to drinking and smoking tobacco. Bumpers are much in fashion both here and in Russia; nor can a worse compliment be paid to an host than for any person to refuse pledging him.

But to describe minutely the forms, ceremonies, grandeur, and shew of the Polanders, would exceed the bounds of any scientific work; however, that the reader may figure to himself some adequate idea of these people, he may fancy them to include all that is fastidious and expensive. When they appear abroad, the pomp of their attendance even exposes them to ridicule: the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, and a great number of servants, is attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentlewoman-governante, and a couple of dwarfs to support her train. The figure of all their pomp, however, is proportioned to their estates; but as each person goes as far as his income can possibly afford, and the nobility are precluded from trade, though not from service, on pain of being accounted infamous, many of them are thrown into very distressful situations, from which it is impossible, without commerce, they can ever extricate themselves or families.

The Poles, when considered as members of the community, are divided into nobles, citizens, and peasants.

The Polish nobility have, from time immemorial, resided in the country; but though there are different titles, such as princes, counts, and barons, the whole body is naturally on a level, except the difference that arises from the public posts they enjoy; hence all who boast a noble birth address one another by the appellation of Brothers. Superior titles of honour meet with no superior respect, each thinking that of a gentleman of Poland to be the highest distinction that can be enjoyed. Their privileges are many and considerable; and, indeed, such as are wholly incompatible with every idea of civil liberty; partly acquired by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally deduced from ancient custom and prescription. They possess a power of life and death over their vassals, are exempted from the payment of taxes, and are accountable to none but the king, whom they have a vote in electing, and lay under what restraint they please by the *pacta conventa*; besides which, none but themselves, and the burghers of some few particular towns, are permitted to purchase lands. In short, the nobility enjoy an independence every way inconsistent with a well-regulated government, and are so powerful and despotic over their tenants, that they assign them over, with their lands, cattle, and furniture. Some of the Polish grandees occupy estates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are also hereditary sovereigns of cities, over which the king has no jurisdiction. The house of a nobleman is a secure asylum for persons guilty of the most enormous offences, for none must presume to take them thence without free permission from its master. Horse and foot guards are continually on duty before their palaces, and march before them when they go abroad; but when the nobles attend the diet, they display their utmost magnificence, being frequently attended by five thousand armed men; and instances are not wanting, where they have decided their debates by the sword. When these haughty nobles have suits at law, the diet, or rather tribunal, decides

cides them; but the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword, the energy of justice being too feeble to force a compliance with it's decrees. Indeed, quarrels are frequently decided in this way, as the first appeal; some thousands of men being raised on each side, and a mutual occasion sought to plunder, burn, and destroy.

As to the peasants, being born and brought up as slaves, they never entertain any notions of liberty, nor are they treated as creatures entitled to justice or humanity; for if a grandee murders the peasant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation by providing another vassal of equal age and condition. When a nobleman is desirous of cultivating a piece of land, he builds a little wooden hut somewhere upon the spot, in which he settles the peasant and his family, giving them a cow, two horses, and a certain number of geese and other poultry, with as much corn as is sufficient for their maintenance the first year, and to improve for their own future subsistence and the emolument of their lord. Thus, having no property of their own, all their acquisitions only serve to enrich the master: they are indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth, and are incapacitated from entering upon any condition of life which might procure them freedom, or improve their fortune; and, besides, they are exposed to the odious, and frequently fatal, effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity, of their tyrannical masters; who, having the full power of their lives and property in their hands, too often abuse it in the most gross and wanton manner, the wives and daughters of the unhappy peasants being subject to the most brutal treatment. One blessing, however, attends the wretched situation of these poor people, which is derived from their insensibility: born in servitude, and habituated from their infancy to hardships and severe labour, they scarcely entertain any idea of happier circumstances and greater liberty; and look up to their masters with a reverential awe, regarding them as a superior order of beings. Cheerful and contented with their lot, they always shew the greatest alacrity to sacrifice themselves and their families for their chieftain, especially if he pays a moderate attention to the comfortableness of their subsistence; for one of their maxims is, that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. In short, the present state of the Poles bears a strong resemblance, in many instances, to that of Europe in general during the feudal ages; the grandees, as in those days, possess unbounded power, while their vassals are almost deprived of the most unalienable rights of humanity.

Such is the boasted liberty of the Poles; by which the multitude are reduced to the most abject slavery; while those who enjoy estates, however small, exercise greater power over their dependants than is allowed to royalty in states where civil liberty is well understood.

With respect to the patrimonial wealth of the Polish nobles, it is either derived from landed estates, a share in the salt-works, or from the revenues of the city of Dantzic, which are esteemed equivalent to an estate in land. But besides this hereditary independence, there are royal and ecclesiastical estates; the former of which consist principally in starosties, which are in general disposed of by the king, as the reward of military merit; and the latter are derived from bishoprics, benefices, priories, and canonries, to which vast quantities of land are annexed.

This country emerged from idolatry about the year 964, when St. Adelbert preached the Christian religion with such success among the Poles, as ever after confirmed them in the belief of the true God; though, in some of the remotest parts of the kingdom, we are told, even at this time, Pagans are to be found. Ever since the above-mentioned æra, the Catholic artifice has kept the Polish government firmly attached to its cause; hence the Reformation could never meet with the sanction of the legislature, and none but Papists can rise to any rank in the state. However, no country has bred more deists and free-thinkers than this; and the number of Protestants, consisting principally of Lutherans and Calvinists, is very considerable. But though these religious persuasions are tolerated, so tenacious are the Polish nobility, and the bulk of the nation, of the Roman Catholic faith, that persecutions have frequently been commenced and carried on against dissenters from the established religion, with all the fury of superstitious bigotry. The treaty of Olivia, which was concluded in 1660, in favour of dissenters from the national church, and guaranteed by the principal powers of Europe, was most grossly violated by the governing powers in 1724, when a public massacre was made, under the sanction of the laws, of a number of Protestants at Thorn. But though the Romish bigots occasionally exercise their religious phrenzy on the adherents of the reformed churches, Jews, Turks, and Infidels of every kind, are not only tolerated, but encouraged. When Stanislaus Augustus, the present king of Poland, was elevated to the throne, having a mind above the narrow views of blind superstition, he endeavoured to liberate the Protestants from their oppressions, by reviving all the laws which at different periods had been made in their favour: but this liberal and benevolent intention served only to confirm the evil it was intended to remedy; for the zealots of the church of Rome immediately took up arms, exterminating the Protestants wherever they could be found, and laying the country waste.

The number of monasteries in this kingdom amounts to five hundred and seventy-six, and the nunneries to one hundred and seventeen; there are, besides, two hundred and forty-six seminaries, and thirty-one abbeys: and some writers of reputation inform us, that near two-thirds of the lands and revenues of the whole kingdom are sequestered to religious uses.

But, with all their wealth, the Polish clergy in general are illiterate bigots, opinionated and superstitious, and skilled only in that species of sophistry called school-divinity, in an unmeaning metaphysical jargon, and the frivolous distinctions of fine-spun logic.

The monks are the most profligate and debauched characters imaginable; often appearing drunk in public, and frequenting places of ill repute without apprehending any disgrace to their order, or dreading the censure of their superiors, whose own vices render them equally liable to contempt. After what has been said, it may easily be conceived that the clergy have a vast sway in all public deliberations, that their immense revenues give them considerable weight, and that the ignorance of their flocks paves a ready way for religious tyranny.

Poland contains only two archiepiscopal sees; Guesna and Lemburg. The archbishop of Guesna, besides being primate, and during any inter-règnum prince regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal; and even the bishops enjoy greater immunities and privileges.

privileges in Poland than in most other countries, though they are extremely remiss in the execution of their episcopal functions.

The Polish language is a dialect of the Slavonic; and, on account of the vast number of consonants it employs, is extremely harsh and inharmonious: however, the Latin tongue is commonly spoken, even by those of inferior rank, though without the least regard to accent, quality, or purity of language. High Dutch and Russian are likewise understood in the provinces bordering on these respective countries.

This climate seems very unpropitious to the growth of literature; though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomy, as well as Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland. The contempt which the nobility have ever shewn for learning, the vassalage of the lower classes, and the gloomy superstition which pervades all ranks of men, are circumstances which have wonderfully retarded the progress of arts and sciences. However, under the auspices of the present king, who is not only a patron but a judge, the fine arts begin to revive, the new philosophy is generally admitted, mathematics are studied, and natural philosophy is become fashionable.

The Polish universities are those of Cracow, Posenia, and Wilna. The first consists of eleven colleges, and has the superintendence of fourteen grammar-schools, dispersed through the city; that of Posenia is rather a college of the Jesuits than an university; and Wilna, though dignified with the name of an university, contains nothing curious or interesting.

Poland exports none of its manufactures, the commodities it produces being carried out of the country unwrought. The pride of nobility, and the bigotry of religion, are of infinite detriment, not only to the progress of arts, but likewise to the prosperity of commerce. The Poles, however, export grain of all kinds, masts, deal-boards, and ship and house timber; pitch, flax, hemp, linseed, hops, honey, wax, hides, horned cattle, horses, tallow, leather, potash, and other domestic commodities: but these are considerably overbalanced by their imports, which consist of wine, spices, plate, copper, brass and steel, with a variety of articles which luxury has rendered necessary.

The constitution of Poland is so extremely singular, that we cannot trace the most remote resemblance of it in any government either ancient or modern. Large volumes have been written expressly on the subject, but it still remains in a great measure unknown. The republic, as it is called, is composed of the king, senate, and nobility: the king is allowed to be the head, and is elected by the nobility and clergy on the plains of Warsaw, who assemble on horseback for that purpose; and if there be a refractory minority, the majority have no other controul over them than that which is obtained by the exercise of superior violence. Immediately after the king's election, he signs the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government, and accedes to such other stipulations as the haughty and imperious nobles think proper to impose; so that, in fact, he can only be regarded as president of the senate, which is composed of the Primate, the Archbishop of Lemburg, fifteen bishops, and an hundred and thirty laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines and castellans. This senate is styled the Guardian of Liberty, the Judge of Right, and Protector of Justice and Equity. Its members,

members, except where the honour is annexed to any particular office, are nominated by the king; but they must take an oath to the republic before they are permitted to enter on the exercise of their functions. They are the natural mediators between the monarch and the subject; and, in conjunction with his majesty, ratify all the laws passed by the nobility.

The Polish diet is composed of the king, the senate, and the deputies of the nobility of every palatine, and is either ordinary or extraordinary: the former is convoked only once in two or three years, and the latter by the king on any critical emergency; but one dissenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can only sit six weeks at one time, there are three dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts, to which the king submits by letter the heads of the business to be transacted in the general diet. The gentry of each palatine, who are privileged to sit in the dietine, then nominate their nuncios or deputies, who carry their resolutions to the grand diet. This grand assembly of the states meets twice at Warsaw, and once at Grodno, in rotation, for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made this one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The ten great officers of state in Poland, who are also senators, are the two great marshals of Poland and Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the dutchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the dutchy; the treasurer of the kingdom, and the treasurer of the dutchy; the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the kingdom; and the sub-marshal, or marshal of the court of the dutchy.

The starosts are properly governors and judges in particular starosties, or districts; but some enjoy this title without any appropriate jurisdiction.

The palatines and castellans, who compose a part of the senate, are likewise lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants in their respective palatines.

Such are the general outlines of the Polish constitution, heterogeneous in its nature, and ineffectual in its legislation: however, it is new-modelled by almost every new sovereign, according to the *pacta conventa* imposed on him at his accession; so that nothing can be affirmed with certainty respecting it, especially since the late war, which occasioned a total dissolution of order in Poland. But, notwithstanding its acknowledged defects, it appears to be founded on principles which, if not ill applied, might be made favourable to public liberty, by restraining the prerogative of the king, and by the institution of frequent diets and dietines: however, in its most improved state, it laboured under incurable disorders; and the exercise of the *veto*, or tribunitial negative, which is vested in every member of the diet or dietine, is destructive of all order and government. The want likewise of due subordination in the executive parts of the constitution, and the rendering noblemen independent of the laws, are blemishes which will be the more difficult to remove, as they can only be done with the consent of those whose privileges they would injure in the most essential manner. The whole constitution, indeed, rests on Gothic principles, and that unlimited jurisdiction the great lords in former ages used to enjoy over all Europe; and the only probable means by which it can be improved to the benefit of the kingdom in general, is by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, and by a reformation in religion. These great points obtained, the common people would naturally acquire some independence,

dependence, the power of the grandees would consequently be abridged, and would render them less able to maintain that controul over the public deliberations which is so inimical to the community at large.

The royal revenues of Poland are very considerable; and though the king is limited in the political exercise of his prerogative, his income is amply sufficient to support him and his household in great splendor. A commission of state settled a million and a half of florins on his present majesty at his accession, which are solely appropriated to his own domestic use, as he pays neither guards nor officers of state.

The public revenues arise principally from the crown lands, the salt mines, ancient tolls and customs, and the rents of several districts.

A standing army in constant pay was formerly unknown in this country, being justly deemed inimical to public liberty; but, upon any emergency, all who were capable of bearing arms took the field, and followed the standard of their sovereign: however, in 1551, the Lithuanians, being harassed by the incursions of their neighbours, for their own security, began to keep on foot a certain number of troops; and their example was shortly afterwards followed by the Poles, who raised an army to protect their frontiers from the ravages of the lawless nations which surrounded them. These troops are now divided into the Crown army, and that of Lithuania. The Crown army consists of a thousand spearmen, three thousand nine hundred and forty cuirassiers, a thousand light armed troops disciplined in the Polish manner, four thousand dragoons, six thousand seven hundred and fifty foot soldiers, eight hundred and fifty matrosses, and four hundred Hungarians; all which, except the last, are under the German discipline. The Lithuanian army is composed of four hundred lance-men, eleven hundred and sixty cuirassiers, four hundred and sixty Tartars, two hundred and forty Cossacs, four regiments of dragoons, three regiments of foot, and a hundred and fifty matrosses. The charge of these troops, in Poland, is defrayed by a poll-tax; but in Lithuania, other taxes are appropriated for that purpose.

But besides this small standing army, Poland, on any pressing exigency, is provided with another, which can be speedily raised, and with very little expence; for, on any sudden and imminent danger, the whole body of the nobility are summoned to appear in the field, and this obtains the appellation of the *Pospolite*. The occasional army, however, which sometimes amounts to one hundred thousand men from Poland, and seventy thousand from Lithuania, cannot be detained in the field above six weeks, nor are these troops obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom. They are all mounted on horseback; and it must be confessed that the Polish hussars make the best appearance of any cavalry in Europe; next to which are the *Pancerns*. Both of these corps wear coats of mail and iron caps. The rest of the cavalry carry muskets and heavy scymitars. But, after all, this immense body is extremely inefficient in the field, the men being strangers to all discipline, and too often inattentive to the commands of their general officers. The Poles are naturally brave, and might be made excellent troops by proper discipline; indeed they have, on various occasions, particularly under John Sobieski, made a most distinguished figure in arms, when they proved the bulwark of Christendom against the Infidels. How-

ever, the political views of the Saxon princes who succeeded that illustrious hero were not to be answered by encouraging a martial spirit among the Poles, whom they perpetually over-awed with their electoral troops; nor by introducing any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been fatally experienced in numerous recent instances.

The Polish arms are, Gules, an Eagle Argent, for Poland; and Gules, a Cavalier Argent, for Lithuania.

The only order of knighthood in this country is that of the White Eagle, which was instituted in 1705 by Augustus II. Its ensign is a Cross of Gold enamelled with red, having a white border and four flames between the points, appendant to a blue ribband. On one side of the badge is the Polish White Eagle, with the white cross and electoral sword on its breast; and on the other side the king's cypher, encircled with this motto, '*Pro Fide, Rege, et Legē.*'

The general geographical divisions of Poland have been usually made to consist of three grand provinces, from which the marshal in the diet is alternately chosen; namely, Great Poland, Little Poland, and the Great Duchy of Lithuania, including collectively the districts or countries of Podolia, Volhinia, Red Russia, Polesia, Masovia, Samogitia, Prussia Royal, Polachia, and Courland; the most considerable places in which now fall under our consideration.

Posen, or Posen, the capital of the palatinate of Posenia, is a very elegant and compact city, lying on the banks of the River Warta, in 52 degrees 26 minutes north latitude, and is encompassed with a double wall and a moat. The castle is a superb structure standing on an island in the middle of the river; the churches, convents, Jesuits college, academy, and bishop's palace, are likewise fine; but the whole town is subject to frequent inundations. This city is the most ancient episcopal see in Poland, having been founded by the Emperor Otho I. and made subordinate to the archbishopric of Magdeburg; under which it continued till it was subjected to the archbishopric of Gnesna; besides which distinction, it enjoys many immunities, and derives a considerable share of affluence from its commercial intercourse with the Germans.

Lissa, in Polish Leszno, is a fine populous town and lordship, on the frontiers of Silesia, which owed its origin to a great number of Protestants removing thither from Silesia, Bohemia, Moravia, and Austria, to which they were induced by a grant of religious liberty. The inhabitants carry on an extensive and lucrative trade; and, being exempted from the persecuting effects of bigotry, they have built several churches, and are honoured with the residence of the senior-general or superintendant of all the Lutheran churches in Great Poland. However, in 1656, the town was deserted by the inhabitants, when the Polish troops laid it in ashes; and in 1707 it was again destroyed by the Russians, but afterwards rebuilt with great improvements. In 1772, the King of Prussia possessed himself of it by virtue of a claim specified in his manifesto published on this occasion; and the same year he awed the nobility of Great Poland, by the terror of his arms, to assemble at this place, and to confirm his shameful depredations.

Gnesna, called Gniezno by the Poles, the capital of Great Poland, and the archiepiscopal

copal see of the primate of all Poland, is more venerable for its antiquity than for the elegance of its structures and the number of its inhabitants. A court of judicature, however, is held in this town, and a particular chancellor belongs to the chapter of the cathedral; in which ancient structure the body of St. Adalbert, the tutelary saint of the kingdom, is inclosed in a silver shrine.

In the province of Masovia, a district of Great Poland, lies Warsaw, the royal residence, a town situated on the Vistula, almost in the centre of the kingdom, in 52 degrees 21 minutes north latitude, and in 21 degrees 10 minutes east longitude from London; strongly defended with a double wall, a moat, and a stately castle. The private buildings are elegantly neat; and the public ones are many of them sumptuous, particularly the royal palaces, the churches, convents, hospital, and arsenal. The valuable library of Count Zaluski, opened in 1746, and containing above two hundred thousand volumes, is both an advantage and ornament to the city; and it will ever be matter of regret to the natives, and of astonishment to foreigners, that the first city of the British dominions is still unfurnished with a similar convenience.

An academy for military exercises, and a literary society, have been some years instituted at Warsaw: and both the general and provincial diets are held at the same place; the former of which assemblies occasions such an amazing concourse of people, that numbers, for want of accommodation in the city, are obliged to pitch their tents, and lie without the walls.

King Sigismund III. first distinguished this city by making it the royal residence, which honour his successors have ever since continued. In 1655, it was held by a Swedish garrison, who made it the repository of the booty they collected in their depredations upon the Poles; but this last nation laying siege to it in 1656, obliged the city to surrender, after a spirited defence, by which the greatest part of the plunder fell into their hands. However, Charles Gustavus approaching with an army to the relief of the city, King John Casimir marched out against him; and, after a desperate battle kept up with unabated fury for three days, near the suburbs of Praja, the Poles were compelled to retreat with the loss of their artillery and baggage; on which the Swedes, after placing a small garrison in the town, destroyed the fortifications. In 1702, the Swedes, under Charles XII. again took possession of this city, it happening at that time to be unprotected by any adequate military defence.

Cracow, the capital of the whole kingdom, (though that honour has been disputed by Warsaw) lies in Little Poland, delightfully situated in a fertile country, at the conflux of the Vistula and the Rida, in 50 degrees north latitude, and 19 degrees 30 minutes east longitude from London.

This city contains a number of religious edifices; among which the cathedral dedicated to St. Stanislaus, formerly bishop of the see, who was assassinated at the altar by Boleslaus II. claims distinguished pre-eminence. In this cathedral the remains of St. Stanislaus are inclosed in a silver shrine, over whom masses are regularly performed day and night. The regalia of the kingdom is likewise deposited in this structure, where the kings of Poland are always crowned, and their remains deposited. On the west side of the city lies a suburb

suburb with beautiful gardens, near which the king's palace is situated, commanding every local advantage: on the south side is the royal castle, founded on a lofty rock, near the Vistula; contiguous to which is the suburb of Stradomo, which contains several churches, convents, and hospitals, and is connected, by means of a bridge over the Vistula, with the town of Cazimierz, built by Casimir the Great, and which may be considered as the second division of the city of Cracow. The most remarkable edifice in this part of the city is the University, consisting of eleven colleges, to which fourteen grammar-schools, dispersed over different quarters of the city, are subordinate. To the north of the city lies the suburb of Klepaz, which is destitute of walls; but contains many stately edifices, particularly the church of St. Florian, and the bishop's palace.

Taken in its full extent, Cracow is very large; and, before the removal of the court, and the other subsequent calamities of war, was populous and flourishing. The citizens enjoy this particular privilege, that no appeal lies from the city council but to the king alone; who likewise is restricted to adjudge all causes relating to it, or its suburbs, in Cracow itself. The palatine of the city elects the council, but cannot afterwards displace a single member. However, with all its immunities, Cracow is far from being in a prosperous state; fire, pestilence, and the sword, having frequently ruined its structures, and despoiled it of inhabitants; which reiterated calamities will long be severely felt, and perhaps never entirely recovered.

Bosnia, a town famous for its salt-mines, which were discovered in 1251, is situated only a few miles from Cracow, and is surrounded with eminences on every side, and beautifully intersected by the little River Raab. The salt-mine is contained in a slip of land seven hundred and fifty feet broad, and about ten thousand long; its greatest depth being a thousand two hundred feet from the surface. The salt lies in veins, and is cut in small pieces, and put up in casks by a number of labourers, who are continually employed in this service. Alabaster, and large pieces of black indurated wood incrustured with salt, have frequently been found in this mine, which is perfectly dry in every quarter.

But Wiliska, though an inconsiderable town of itself, is still more famous for its salt-mines; by which, indeed, it is entirely undermined: These prodigious cavities are six thousand feet in length, and two thousand in breadth; and, at a medium, about eight hundred deep; but the veins of salt are not limited to this extent, for their breadth only has yet been ascertained. At present, there are ten shafts, all perfectly dry, which are inhabited by a kind of subterraneous commonwealth, consisting of a number of families, having laws and policy peculiar to themselves, and adapted to their singular situation. Many people are born, and even die, in this strange abyss, without ever once enjoying the light of the sun, breathing the fresh air, or beholding the face of nature. The spaciousness of these subterraneous galleries almost exceeds conception: houses, warehouses, and even chapels, adorned with crucifixes and other sacred ornaments, dug out of the salt rock, are dispersed throughout the mine, and strike every traveller with admiration.

The salt lies near the surface, in large shapeless masses, out of which blocks of a hundred feet square may sometimes be hewn; but these solid masses are generally found to decrease in magnitude in proportion to their depth. About six hundred thousand quintals of salt

salt are said to be annually dug out of these mines; the least valuable sort of which is called green salt from its colour, occasioned by an heterogeneous mixture of a greyish mineral or clay with crystals of salt. A cask of this salt, generally containing six quintals, sells for twenty-two Polish guilders, equivalent to one shilling and two-pence each; a quintal of block-salt is estimated at fifteen Polish guilders; while a third species, called *sal-gemma*, or crystal-salt, which is only found in small pieces interspersed in the rock, and when detached from it breaks into cubes or rectangular prisms, is generally sold unprepared at a very extravagant price.

These salt-mines have always constituted a part of the king's Board Revenues, as they are termed, and are generally farmed; though sometimes they are retained in the king's own hands, who in that case appoints officers for their management.

Kaminiec Podolski, the capital of the palatinate of Podolia, is situated in 48 degrees 58 minutes north latitude, and is defended by a strong castle standing on a rock, esteemed the best fortification in Poland. This city is the respective see of a Polish and an Armenian bishop; being also adorned with a college of Jesuits. In 1672, the Turks took possession of it, and retained it for several years; but at last it was ceded to its former masters, and continued in their hands till the year 1770, when its inhabitants were principally carried off by the plague, and the few who survived this dreadful calamity were obliged to abandon the place; since which it has been of little importance.

The palatinate of Kiow, or Kiovia, forming part of the Ukraine, is almost entirely subject to Russia; Polish Kiovia including only two small districts, which contain no places deserving notice. However, we must observe, that this country was almost entirely ruined by an insurrection of the Greek peasants in 1768, when the most horrid barbarities were exercised. Those poor people having long endured the most tyrannical oppressions, at last assembled in large bodies, and murdering those of every rank, age, and persuasion, who opposed them, sacked and burned the towns and villages with the most savage ferocity: the Jews in particular, who had long been employed by the nobility as stewards in the management of their estates, experienced the most dreadful effects of their resentment; they were butchered with the most wanton barbarity, and scarce a vestige was left of their having ever resided in that country.

Lithuania, a large and plentiful province dependent upon Poland, is divided into nine palatinates, the inhabitants of which are still governed by laws peculiar to themselves, and retain many separate institutions.

Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, stands on the River Wilna, near the influx of the Wilika, in 54 degrees 32 minutes north latitude, and contains upwards of forty churches, principally belonging to the Roman Catholics: it is built on several little eminences, defended by a castle, and adorned with an university, a high court of judicature, a provincial diet, and a bishop's see.

Wilna has suffered much from wars and conflagrations; particularly in 1748, when thirteen churches, the Jewish synagogue, twenty-five palaces, four hundred and sixty-nine public and private edifices, with a hundred and forty-six tradesmen's shops, exclusive of warehouses and granaries, were wholly laid in ashes. This dreadful catastrophe was

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followed

followed by another next year, occasioned by lightning, which almost consumed every structure of consequence that had escaped the former devastation; but since this period, the churches have been magnificently rebuilt, and several palaces have risen with additional splendor, though the city in general still retains many internal marks of these disasters.

Grodno, the second city of eminence in Lithuania, an extensive, elegant, and populous place, stands on the River Niemen, in latitude 53 degrees 38 minutes north, and in 23 degrees 52 minutes east longitude from London. This city contains many superb structures; among which the New Palace, the palace of Prince Radzivil, and that of the Sapiehan family, attract the attention of every traveller. The private buildings are extremely commodious, and the public ones are in general magnificent; but the streets, being unpaved, are consequently dirty and unpleasant. In 1673, it was enacted, that every third general diet should be held here; during which, the concourse of people has been sometimes so great, that even the most humble apartments have been engaged at a prodigious rent.

The dutchy of Courland, formerly an appendage of Poland, but now of Russia, contains only two cities of consequence, Mittau and Libau. —

Mittau, the capital of the dutchy, and the residence of the duke, which is situated in 56 degrees 44 minutes north latitude, and in 23 degrees 51 minutes east longitude, is very extensive, but contains few structures of sufficient elegance to attract the eye of taste. In its vicinity stands an incomplete palace, begun by the unfortunate Duke Ernest John, who with his family was sent into exile in 1741, by order of the Czarina Anne of Russia, to whom he had been formerly high-chamberlain. Under one wing of this deserted edifice is a handsome vault, in which are deposited the remains of the deceased dukes in coffins of fine pewter elegantly decorated; together with those of a Courland peasant, who, with a heroic loyalty, presented himself to be shot, instead of one of the dukes, by some noblemen who had conspired against his prince's life.

Libau, a town situated on the Baltic, has a good port, and carries on an extensive trade, though an inconsiderable place to appearance, the houses being built entirely of wood, and only one story high, except the Lutheran church, which is a handsome structure in the modern stile, with a flat roof and balustrade. Above an hundred and fifty ships annually visit this port, which principally take in ladings of hemp, linseed, and other commodities which the vicinity produces.

Polish or Regal Prussia is a distinct political body, which contains nothing in common with Poland, except in acknowledging the same sovereign, and being connected with that crown in perpetual alliance. With respect to the towns of this province, they are divided into the three great cities, Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing; and twenty-seven towns, honoured with the title of Royal, though of very inferior consideration. Between these small towns an association was formed under the government of the Knights of the Teutonic Order: which union still subsists; for they unite in behalf of their common privileges; form particular assemblies, in which they consult their interest as a community; and recommend their common concerns, in the general diet of Russia, to the representatives of the great cities. Marienburgh, the most considerable of these towns, has

has the directory; and this, with Graudenz, Dirshau, Stargård, and Konitz, are called Plenipotentiary Towns, because they are charged with the affairs of the other towns, which they lay before the directory; and the latter represent them to the deputies of the great cities. These towns, however, are far from being in a flourishing condition, having been involved in the general calamity that this devoted kingdom has lately experienced.

Dantzic, a celebrated commercial city and fortress, situated on the Vistula, about four miles from its influx into the Baltic, in 53 degrees 8 minutes north latitude, and in 18 degrees 35 minutes east longitude, is a large, beautiful, populous, and commercial place, built after the ancient manner of the Hanse Towns. It is intersected by two small rivers, the Radaune and the Motlau; the latter of which dividing into two channels, runs between the New and the Old Town, and afterwards uniting below the city, falls into the Vistula. The houses in general are five stories high; which circumstance, added to that of balconies projecting ten or twelve feet, makes the streets appear disagreeably narrow: but as the inhabitants pay the utmost attention to cleanliness in their way of living and habitations, and as many of the streets are planted with chestnut-trees which afford a delightful shade, the whole has an air of neatness, convenience, and opulence.

The inhabitants are characterized as courteous and obliging to strangers, and faithful to their commercial compacts: their privileges are numerous and important; they vote at the election of a sovereign for Poland, their representatives have a seat in the general diet, and they have a mint of their own.

In this city are twelve Lutheran and two Calvinistical churches, one for those of the Romish persuasion, and a college of Jesuits. The cathedral, a large Lutheran church, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a magnificent and ancient structure, containing all the crucifixes, images, and pictures, which belonged to it in the times of popery; and, among other curiosities usually shewn to strangers, is a curious piece of painting on wood by Van Eyck, representing the Resurrection. The public buildings are proportioned to the opulence of the city; the Exchange, the Council-house, Public Weighing-house, and Arsenal, are all well adapted for their respective destinations; the latter of which, besides a good collection of light arms, contains an hundred and fifty large brass cannon of enormous weight.

This city, which was anciently at the head of the Hanseatic Confederacy, maintains its own garrison; and its fortifications make a handsome appearance, particularly towards the south and west: the harbour is beautiful and commodious, and the number of ships employed in bringing corn down the Vistula, and in exporting it from thence to foreign markets, are almost inconceivable. In plentiful years, upwards of a hundred thousand bushels of corn have been brought into this city for exportation; and, indeed, this commodity constitutes the principal commerce of the place, though bees-wax, narrow linens, sack, pot-ash, pearl-ash, pipe-staves, and some other articles, are among the exports of this city.

As early as 997, Dantzic was a large commercial city; but the New Town was not founded till the year 1311, when the Teutonic Knights appear to have exercised sovereignty over the place, and by them it was first encompassed with a wall and a moat in 1343: however,

however, in 1454, it emancipated itself from the yoke of it's oppressive masters; and, upon certain conditions, submitted to Casimir, King of Poland; under whose successors it has since continued, though in every new election of a monarch it has usually insisted on a confirmation of it's ancient exemptions and immunities.

When the King of Prussia made a claim on the sovereignty of the neighbouring countries, this city and Thorn were exempted from his ambitious demands; notwithstanding which, he seized on the territorial property of Dantzic, and proceeding to possess himself of the port-duties of the city, he erected a custom-house in the very harbour, where he laid insupportable arbitrary duties upon goods exported and imported. History, indeed, does not furnish us with a more striking instance of the futility, and even absurdity, of treaties, so far as they are considered as guarantees, or acts of security, than the fate of Dantzic. Comprehended in a variety of general and particular treaties, it's rights and liberties secured and guaranteed by almost all the sovereign powers of Europe through a long and regular succession of public acts, it might have been presumed that Dantzic would have been the last city in the universe that could have suffered tyranny and oppression; yet such is the instability of all human affairs, and the slight dependence to be placed even on the acts of kings, that those powers whose faith has been pledged to support it's liberties from infractions, are the first to violate and destroy them.

Thorn, which is considered as the chief of the three great cities of Polish Prussia, is situated on the Vistula, seventy-two miles south of Dantzic, in latitude 52 degrees 46 minutes north, and in 19 degrees east longitude from London. Herman Balck, first grand master of the Teutonic Order, founded this city in 1232, about four miles distant from it's present site; but in three years time the building was discontinued on the original spot, and the inhabitants removed to the present. In a short time after, Thorn became distinguished for the many valuable privileges with which it was honoured; and when the Teutonic Knights became universally odious in Prussia for the oppression of their government, this was the first city that formed the noble scheme of throwing off the yoke of servitude. To accomplish this great end, the inhabitants concerted a plan of liberty with the other great towns in 1454; and having, by a well-directed force of arms, expelled the tyrants, the confederates put themselves under the protection of Casimir the Great, king of Poland, after stipulating for the full enjoyment of all their original rights, privileges, and immunities.

This city is adorned with ten gates, and is divided into the Old and New Towns, each of which had formerly it's respective magistracy, council, and police; but, in 1454, the whole was incorporated into one city, and encompassed with a common double wall and moat. With regard to the edifices, they are in general sumptuous and elegant; and the streets are broad, regular, and clean, and for the most part planted with rows of trees, which have a delightful effect. The wooden bridge over the Vistula at this place may justly be esteemed the most extensive, extraordinary, and expensive, of any in Europe: it is near two miles in length from the one bank of the river to the other; and the piles being driven into the quicksands, the whole fabric of the bridge shakes whenever any carriages or horses, or even a considerable number of foot-passengers, meet at once upon it; so that a stranger,

stranger, unacquainted with it's construction, is apt to apprehend himself in the most imminent danger; and, indeed, the rapidity of the current, and the large floats of ice which every vernal season beat against it, commonly carry away a considerable part of the structure, which is annually repaired at a prodigious expence.

Thorn experienced a similar fate to that of Dantzic, in regard to the King of Prussia's demands; it's territories and revenues were seized upon, custom and excise-offices erected at it's gates, and heavy exactions laid on the most essential necessities of life. Thus blockaded and plundered, the miserable inhabitants were declared free; but at the same time they were summoned to do homage to the King of Prussia for all the land they possessed without the walls. Under these circumstances, surrounded with an armed force, and in danger of approaching famine, the magistrates and citizens behaved with a resolution and firmness which did honour to their courage; they returned for answer, that they had already paid homage and sworn allegiance to one sovereign, and that they could neither renounce ~~their~~ allegiance, nor break their oaths, on any account or consideration. And in this laudable resolution they have ever since steadfastly persevered.

Elbing, the third city of eminence in Polish Prussia, which stands on a river of the same name, in 54 degrees 21 minutes north latitude, and 19 degrees 15 minutes east longitude from London, was founded in 1239. This is an elegant commercial city, beautifully intersected by the River Elbing, which materially contributes to it's convenience and cleanliness. The houses are lofty, and built in the ancient taste, being in general furnished with balconies; which, projecting a considerable way into the street, give them rather too narrow an appearance. The number of churches in which divine service is performed are ten; that of St. Nicholas, the largest and most beautiful of any in Prussia, was resigned to those of the Romish persuasion in 1616. The fortifications of Elbing are by no means impregnable; yet it is reckoned one of the strongest cities in Prussia, and some companies of the Crown army of Poland are always cantoned in the town; but the burghers keep guard at the gates, while a Prussian garrison bridges the suburbs. In ecclesiastical matters, the city is under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Ermeland, as far as is consistent with the difference of religious persuasion, and without prejudice to the rights and privileges of the city; but in matters relative to civil government, it is only subject to the king. In 1703, Elbing fell into the possession of the Swedes, who laid it under contribution; but the Russians wrested it from them by storm. It was formerly mortgaged to the Elector of Brandenburg, as a security for the payment of four hundred thousand rixdollars; but as the stipulated sum remained unpaid, the King of Prussia made this a plea for taking possession of the district belonging to it.

Having taken a survey of the principal places in the dismembered and distracted government of Poland, we shall proceed to give a concise history of the whole.

The records of Poland, during the early ages, are very obscure and unsatisfactory: however, we learn from them, that it was anciently divided into a number of principalities, having little dependence upon one another, though generally acknowledging the supremacy of some chief prince. In 890, a peasant, named Piatius, was elected to the sovereignty; whose reign was so long and so auspicious, that every native Pole who

has since risen to supreme power has been called a Piast. From this period, to the close of the fourteenth century, we search in vain for a connected chain of historical events; all is involved in darkness and doubt. But, about this time, Jagellon, Grand Duke of Livonia, and a Pagan, being elected to fill the Polish throne, became a convert to Christianity, and exerted his utmost endeavours to bring over his subjects to the same faith. He annexed his hereditary dominions to those of Poland; which disinterested conduct so attached the Poles to his interest, that the crown was preserved in his family through a long succession of princes, till the male line became extinct in the person of Sigismund Augustus, in 1552. At this time two powerful competitors started up for royalty; Henry Duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. King of France; and Maximilian, of Austria. The French interest prevailed; but the new-elected sovereign had scarcely been seated four months on the throne, when his brother dying, he escaped privately into France, and assumed the reins of government in that kingdom, under the title of Henry III. The friends of Maximilian, upon this, attempted to revive their pretensions; but the Poles in general expressing a predilection for a prince who would fix his residence among them, conferred the crown on Stephen Batori, Prince of Transylvania; who, immediately after his accession, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish the tranquillity of his reign, by espousing Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, of the royal house of Jagellon. Strengthened by this connection, Stephen produced a mighty change in the military affairs of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of the Cossacs, a brave but barbarous race of men, on whom he bestowed the Ukrain, or frontiers of his kingdom. This prince died in 1586, when the Poles elected Sigismund, son of John King of Sweden, for their sovereign. Sigismund, after the demise of his father, was crowned king of Sweden: but, being expelled from that kingdom, as already mentioned in the history of Sweden, a long and bloody war was carried on between the Poles and the Swedes, which terminated greatly in favour of the former; but their king aspiring not only to the throne of Sweden, but likewise to that of Russia, he involved the Poles in a destructive and complicated war, and was thereby frustrated in all his views. The Poles afterwards were engaged in a variety of wars with all their neighbours, which were carried on with different degrees of success; and, about the year 1657, Ducal Prussia, a province in Poland, was confirmed to the Elector of Brandenburg by John Casimir, the last descendant of the ancient kings of Poland.

In 1673, John Sobieski, the Crown-general, a brave and spirited commander, who had nobly supported the honour of the Polish arms against the Turks, was raised to the throne of his native country; and, in 1676, he was so successful against the Infidels, that he compelled them to remit a tribute which they had imposed upon Poland in the last reign. Though Sobieski had met with several undeserved affronts from the House of Austria, his public spirit overcame the sense of private injuries: he entered into the league formed against the Turks for the defence of Christendom, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging them to raise the siege of Vienna, which he performed with a dreadful slaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious achievements, and finally driving the Turks out of Hungary, he experienced an ungrateful return from the Emperor Leopold. After this,

Sobieski

Sobieski returned to Poland, but had the misfortune to be suspected by the senate of aiming to render the crown hereditary in his family: this tended to disturb the tranquillity of his government, and formed a pretext for the nobles to oppose his measures; however, no surmises could tarnish the glory he had already acquired; and he died in 1696, after a glorious reign of thirty-three years.

After Sobieski's death, Poland experienced the most dreadful distractions; many confederacies were formed, and different competitors for royalty were countenanced by different factions, who seemed united in nothing but the utter exclusion of the Sobieski family.

In the mean time, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, who committed the most horrid depredations with impunity, when her crown was in a manner exposed to public sale: The Prince of Conti, of the blood-royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought his election was absolutely certain, the intrigues of the Queen Dowager in favour of her younger son Prince Alexander Sobieski, overturned the baseless fabric of his hopes. nor was she more successful in her views; for the violence of party drove her from Warsaw to Dantzic. A new candidate, Augustus, Elector of Saxony, now suddenly started up; who, after a pretended election, being proclaimed king by the Bishop of Cujavia, took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and was actually crowned in that city in 1697. The Prince of Conti, however, did not all at once relinquish his claim: he made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, but at last was obliged to return to France, and the powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The beginning of this prince's reign was turbulent and disastrous; he was driven from the throne by Charles XII. of Sweden, and afterwards restored by Peter the Great: however, his power was not fully confirmed before the year 1712; and, indeed, he always swayed the sceptre on precarious and disagreeable terms. Naturally attached to their countryman Stanislaus, whom Charles had elevated to the throne, the Poles were perpetually forming plots and conspiracies against Augustus, who had no other means of supporting his authority than by his Saxon troops. His natural son, Prince Maurice, afterwards the famous Count Saxe, was chosen Duke of Courland in 1725; but Augustus was unable to maintain him in that dignity, against Prussian force, and Polish jealousy. Augustus died in 1733, after an unpropitious reign, and after having exerted his utmost influence to secure the succession to his son Augustus II. This proved the occasion of a war, in which the French king supported the interest of Stanislaus, now his father-in-law, who was re-elected to the throne by a powerful party, at the head of which was the prince primate; but Augustus entering Poland with a strong army of Saxons and Prussians, compelled his rival to retreat to Dantzic; from whence he with difficulty escaped into France. Augustus, however, like his father, found his crown beset with thorns; for, though endowed with every qualification necessary to conciliate affection, or to fit him for the exercise of government, he could never gain the hearts of the Poles; and at last his Prussian Majesty not only drove him from his capital, but also his electorate; and he died at Dresden in 1763.

Upon this, Count Stanislaus Poniatowski, rather on account of his personal merits, and the rooted inveteracy the Poles had conceived against the Saxon alliance, than any pre-eminence

eminence of birth or family, was elected King of Poland, with uncommon marks of unanimity, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus. Being eminently favoured by the Russians, the *pacta conventa* he signed at the time of his election, and other incipient acts of his government, were deemed too favourable to the Protestants and Greek dissenters; the latter of which, though under another power, claim the protection of her Imperial Majesty of Russia, as their patroness. As this princess had an army at that time lying in Poland, the Catholics made a handle of these circumstances to form many confederacies against Poniatowski, which at first were crushed with prodigious slaughter and horrid desolation by the Russians, while the king did not dare to entrust his personal protection even to the Poles of his own party. The heads of the confederacy, at last, animated to desperation, and regardless of future consequences, most unnaturally put themselves under the protection of the Grand Signior; who eagerly embracing their cause, proclaimed war against Russia, and invaded Poland with a formidable army; since which time, it has been the theatre of as much misery, bloodshed, and devastation, as perhaps was ever recorded in history; while, hurried on by religious enthusiasm to actions which disgrace not only the Christian faith, but human nature itself, the insurgents were inattentive to the motions and secret designs of foreign invaders, who, with the most plausible pretences of amity and good-will, were plotting the annihilation of the state. These insidious neighbours were the Imperial, the Russian, and the Prussian courts; who taking advantage of the internal divisions of that devoted kingdom, entered into a formal treaty to share among themselves territories to which, till then, they had never entered a claim; and which for ages had been avowed, guaranteed, and maintained to Poland, by the different powers of Europe, and even by the recent declarations of those very powers who then shamefully violated them. To shew the despicable meanness to which ambition will stoop, and the little confidence that is to be reposed in the words of kings, we shall present our readers with extracts from the professions of each of the combining powers, before they attempted to throw off the mask.

The Empress of Russia, in an act of renunciation in 1764, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire, declares, That she did by no means arrogate either to herself, her heirs or successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to districts or territories which were actually in possession or subject to the authority of the King of Poland, or Great Dutchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland, and dutchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdom and dutchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every who should at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispossess them of the same. In the same year, the King of Prussia signed an act with his own hand, wherein he declared, That he had no claims on, and formed no pretensions to Poland, or any part thereof; that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as King of Prussia, Elector of Brandenburg, or Duke of Pomerania: and in the same instrument he guarantees, in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever. The Empress Queen of Hungary, so lately

lately as 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand, in which she gave the King of Poland the strongest assurances, that her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him; and that she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would ever suffer any other power to do it.

From these declarations, it would appear almost criminal to suppose their authors would so quickly have forgot their solemnity, and violated their own veracity; yet, such is the faith of princes, and the instability of human politics, that those very powers have alone united to dismember this unhappy realm.

These pretended friends, however, did not abandon their amicable professions before the year 1770; when a private dispute having arisen between the magistrates of Dantzic and the Prussian consul, the King of Prussia, accustomed to be arbiter in his own cause, did not remonstrate with the magistrates, or wish to come to any explanation with them: he sent a party of his troops, surprized the out-posts of the town, and then fined it in the sum of 100,000 ducats; after which, under pretence of reclaiming some subjects who had fled from the tyranny of his government, he carried off more than a thousand young men to recruit his army. This was only a prelude to what he meditated on Poland itself. The next year his troops entered the province of Great Poland; and, in a short space of time, carried out of it and its vicinity upwards of 12,000 families. On the 29th of October of the same year, his Prussian majesty published an edict, enjoining every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporal inflictions, to receive the money tendered by his troops in payment for forage, provisions, and horses. This money was either silver of Polish impression, exactly worth one-third of its nominal value; or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch coin, but seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two entire years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, whose wretched inhabitants were obliged to come and re-purchase the corn for their daily subsistence at an advanced price, and with good money, that in which they had been paid being refused. By this shameful violation of justice, his Prussian majesty, at the lowest calculation, cleared seven millions of dollars. But, not satisfied with bringing the miseries of indigence and famine on this devoted country, his next care was to thin it of its inhabitants, and to people his own dominions at the expence of Poland: to effectuate which, he projected a new contribution; every town and village was commanded to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls, and their parents were enjoined to give each, as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. These arbitrary edicts and exactions were continued with unabated rigour for a considerable time; but, in September 1772, the Russian, Prussian, and Austrian ministers, in the name of their respective courts, entirely threw off the mask; and, by manifestos delivered at Warsaw, boldly avowed their intentions, and soon after specified the countries which they had agreed respectively to appropriate. In the specifications delivered by the court of Vienna, the Empress Queen accepts the countries contained within the following limits, as a portion equivalent to her pretended rights in Poland: all that lies on the right-side of the Vistula, from the dutchy

of Silesia, above Sandomir, to the mouth of the River San; and from thence, along Tarnopol to Zamoise and Rubreszow, up to the River Bog; and crossing the Bog, and going along the proper frontiers of Red Russia, to where the frontiers of Volhinia and Podolia meet at Zabraz; from thence in a direct line to the River Neister, including that portion of Podolia which is intersected by the Rivulet Podhorze, to it's influx into the Neister; and so on to the bounds which separate Pocutia from Moldavia. Not satisfied with this, the Empress Queen soon after extended her claims to the remainder of the palatinate of Cracovia, and to the whole of Sandomir, on the left side of the Vistula; and on the side of Podolia, to within a short space of Kaminieck.

The Empress of Russia, by way of indemnification and exchange for divers ancient rights and *just and indisputable* pretensions, seizes on all Polish Livonia; that part of the palatinate of Poloczko situate on the right of the Dwina; all the palatinate of Witepsk on both sides of that river; all the palatinate of Mscislaw; the superior part of the palatinate of Minsk, along an imaginary line to the source of the Druetz; and also the inferior part of the same province, which extends to the other side of the Druetz and Neiper.

The King of Prussia issued his specifications under the title of letters patent; in which he claims the duchy of Pomerellia, in Pomerania, as the lineal descendant from the House of Stettin, to which these districts of right belonged. To this end he seizes all that part of Great Poland situated on this side of the Nottée; and also all the territories of Prussia and Pomerania on this and on the other side of the Vistula, which the kings of Poland have hitherto possessed under the name of Polish Prussia, excepting only Dantzic and Thorn.

Soon after these manifestos were delivered, a counter-declaration was drawn up by the King of Poland, and the small remains of his senate at Warsaw; in which, after a pathetic expatiation upon the five years of misery and desolation which had ruined the country, whose wretchedness arose in proportion to the interposition of foreign courts, every argument is enforced which reason and justice can urge in opposition to the present unjust and violent measures; and the rights of the republic are rested upon long and uninterrupted possession, avowed and guaranteed by the most solemn treaties with all the European powers. The question is then put, What titles the three confederate powers can oppose to rights so long established and undisputed? If they are titles dug out of the obscurity of ancient times, those days of momentary and sudden revolutions which erected and destroyed, ceded and restored states, in a few months or years; such titles, if admitted, would re-unite to Poland many provinces formerly appertaining to her, but which have for many years been occupied by the very powers who make these pretensions; and that, as it is incontestible, all transactions whatever are annihilated by subsequent stipulations, and as all the latter stipulations between Poland and her neighbours directly oppose the partition they now make, hence it is deducible, that the titles on which that partition is founded cannot be admitted without undermining the rights of every state, and shaking every throne from it's base.

Such were the powerful and unanswerable arguments adduced by the king and senate; but

but these neither produced any effect on the parties to whom they were addressed, nor roused the other European powers to interfere in this disgraceful business. The balance of power, which has frequently armed Europe in it's support, when really in no danger, on this occasion was forgot, and the unhappy republic of Poland was left a prey to the rapacity of those royal usurpers.

C H A P. V.

PRUSSIA.

PRUSSIA, the country of the ancient Borussi, taken in a limited sense, is bounded on the north by part of Samogitia; on the south by Poland Proper and Masovia; on the east by part of Lithuania; and on the west by Polish Prussia and the Baltic; but, taken in it's full extent, this kingdom consists of various territories disseminated over Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern regions, partly derived from legal succession, but by far the greater part from war, violence, and usurpation. The principal divisions of which this monarchy is composed, are Ducal, now Regal Prussia, situated in Poland; Brandenburg, Prussian Pomerania, and Swedish Pomerania in Upper Saxony; Magdeberg and Halberstadt, in Lower Saxony; Glatz, in Bohemia; Minden, Ravensburg, Lingen, Cleves, Meurs, and Mark, in the dutchy of Westphalia; East Friesland, Lippe, Gulick, and Tacklenburgh, in the circle of Westphalia; Gelder, in the Netherlands; Neufchatel, in Switzerland; and part of Silesia, and the countries lately wrested from Poland.

In climates so various, and districts so dispersed, any general account of the air must be liable to many exceptions; however, we may safely pronounce that, upon the whole, it is favourable to health. The soil is fruitful in corn and other commodities; nor is the country by any means deficient in a proportionate number of animals common to the climate, such as horses, cows, sheep, deer, and game; bears, wolves, wild boars, and foxes.

The rivers and lakes are amply stored with fish; and in the vicinity, and on the shores of the Baltic, amber is found in amazing quantities, which is supposed by some to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol. The principal rivers in the country, which, by the frequency and suddenness of their inundations, spread desolation around, are the Vistula, the Bregel, the Memel, the Passarge, and the Elbe.

The population of this kingdom, in the year 1755, was computed to amount to six hundred and thirty-six thousand persons capable of bearing arms; but, since that period, Prussia has received a large augmentation to it's inhabitants, by emigrations from France, Switzerland, Germany, and other countries; advantages this nation derived from the public institutions of a religious tolerancy, and public encouragement to the ingenious of every station.

The Prussian nobility are in general descended from the ancient Germans; and the peasants, who exhibit few peculiarities in dress, manners, or diversions, from their neighbours, are chiefly held in a state of vassalage to the king or nobles. With respect to the religion

religion of Prussia, Lutheranism is most predominant; but that of every sect, whose tenets do not militate against civil government and legal subordination, is also not only tolerated, but countenanced.

Under the politic administration of the present king, who seems to have adopted the justest maxims of enriching himself, by bestowing the means of affluence on his subjects, every art and manufacture is daily improving and encreasing; and the manufactures of glass, iron-works, silk, cloth, camblet, linen, stockings, paper, powder, and copper and brass, are particularly flourishing.

Being advantageously situated for trade, the extension of which is promoted by a college of commerce and navigation, Prussia carries on a very considerable foreign traffic; and as it's imports are trifling in proportion to it's exports, the balance of trade in it's favour is greater than that of any other European country.

The King of Prussia is as absolute a monarch as any in Christendom; but is too wise to oppress his own subjects, though he avails himself to the full extent of his power. His present majesty, Frederick III. has new-modelled the form of government, and appointed different chambers of justice for determining commercial and ecclesiastical affairs. These are all subordinate to the High Court of Judicature at Koningsberg; and an appeal also lies to the Supreme Court of Appeals, where the chancellor sits as president, and, according to the nature of the cause, it may be farther removed to the Secret Chamber of Justice at Berlin. The supreme college in Prussia is the Royal Court of Regency, consisting of four chancellors of state, namely, the Great Master, the Great Busgrave, the Great Chancellor, and the Great Marshal; subordinate to which are various other councils. The state council is composed of counsellors of state, and deputies from the nobility and commons. But besides these courts, where negotiations are carried on, or justice administered, the meanest subject in the Prussian dominions may appeal to his king in writing; and instances are not wanting on record, where Frederick III. has rescued the poor from oppression, and with exemplary severity punished the judges who have been convicted of polluting the current of justice.

The royal revenues arise principally from the produce of the excise, customs, and services, and from demesne lands and yearly subsidies granted by the several states. Amber alone is said to bring in an annual emolument of 26,000 dollars into the treasury; but the aggregate of finance has never been stated with any degree of authenticity, though we may suppose it is very considerable, from the immense charges this country has sustained in it's wars.

The military forces of Prussia, particularly in the present reign, have been no less formidable from their discipline than from their numbers; and it may justly be asserted, that, for a fine appearance, military skill, and activity, the Prussian armies are unparalleled in Europe. The body of cadets at Berlin is a constant nursery for good officers; and as neither interest, fortune, nor honours, can procure a single commission, if divested of that merit which ought always to be the passport to promotion in every line, the Prussian officers are better acquainted with their duty than those of almost every other nation. Every regiment formerly had a particular district assigned it, where the youth fit for bearing arms were

were registered; and, when occasion required, they joined their regiment, where being incorporated with veterans, they soon became extremely well disciplined: but his majesty, foreseeing the fatal consequences which would arise from draining his own dominions of its best men, towards the conclusion of the last war, issued an edict, by which he enjoined, that all his regiments should be recruited with foreigners and volunteers; and that the young peasants of Prussia, who did not voluntarily adopt the military profession, should be left unmolested. The peace establishment, however, consists of 175,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world; and in war that force has been augmented to 300,000 men. Among this vast army are eight squadrons of hussars, each consisting of one hundred and thirty men, who are all armed with a light musket and sabre, and cloathed with coats of a red coarse cloth, strengthened at the elbows with leather in the shape of a heart; their breeches being made of well-dressed sheep-skins; their boots short and light; and their caps formed in the ordinary way, so as to stand a cut. Besides these hussars, the king maintains a small body of men called Hunters, who have the reputation of being the most faithful couriers in his army; and, on account of their fidelity in dangerous enterprizes, frequently rise to considerable posts. The Austrians are said to have first employed men under this denomination, who were stationed among the ranks, and armed with pieces loaded with single balls, on purpose to single out the officers of their enemy; to counterbalance which unmilitary and barbarous practice, the King of Prussia was induced to take the same method; but no quarter is granted on either side when these Hunters are taken prisoners.

The Prussian soldiery are remarkable for the shortness of their cloathing, which is calculated for many beneficial purposes, though at first appearance it seems to originate from frugality carried to a ridiculous height. They have new regimentals usually twice in three years; but the Royal Guards, and some few other regiments, are cloathed annually. The late king required the soldiers to wear white spatterdashies both in summer and winter; but his present majesty, observing the inconvenience as well as inelegance of this practice, indulged them with black ones for the winter season, generally made of fustian, or a kind of thick linen. The utmost attention is paid to the very minutiae of dress; and one unvaried uniformity runs through all the ranks. In short, the brightness of their arms, the unaffected neatness of their dress, and their perfection in the tactic art, exceeds all description; and nothing can give greater pleasure to those who have any idea of the harmony of military motion, than to see the Prussian soldiers perform their exercise, which is regularly gone through twice every day. But how much will it increase the surprize of strangers, when informed that a common soldier's pay in this country is no more than fourteen-pence sterling a week; and that an army of an hundred and twenty thousand men, on this calculation, costs no more than three hundred and sixty-four thousand pounds a year: so that if we allow thrice that sum for ammunition-bread, (which is always allowed them) the pay of officers, and cloathing the whole, does not much exceed a million sterling; such is the astonishing force of discipline and oeconomy!

The titles of the King of Prussia run thus: ' Frederick, King of Prussia, Marquis of Brandenburg, of the Holy Empire; Arch-Chamberlain and Elector, Sovereign and Su-

preme Duke of Silesia; Sovereign Prince of Orange, Neufchatel, and Valengin, &c. &c.' As an elector, he possesses the seventh place; as arch-chamberlain, he carries the sceptre before the emperor at his coronation; and in the college of the princes of the empire he possesses five votes.

The royal arms of Prussia are, *Argent*, an Eagle displayed *Sable*, crowned, *Or*, for Prussia; *Azure*, the Imperial Sceptre, *Or*, for Courland; *Argent*, an Eagle displayed, *Gules*, with semicircular wreaths, for the Marquisate of Brandenburg; to which are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

In this kingdom are two orders of knighthood. The first, that of the Black Eagle, was instituted by Frederic I. on the day of his coronation at Koningsberg, with this motto, *Suum Cuique*: the ensign is a Gold Cross, like that of Malta, enamelled with blue, and worn appendant to a broad orange-coloured ribband crossing the left-shoulder. The number of knights is restricted to thirty, exclusive of the royal family, the sovereign being always grand master.

The second order, or that of Merit, was established in the year 1740 by his present Prussian majesty: the badge is a Golden Cross with eight points, enamelled with azure; on the superior point is the letter F. crowned; on the three inferior points this motto, *Pour le Merite*; and on the four other points, which form a St. Andrew's Cross, are so many spread Eagles in gold. This insignia is affixed to a black ribband, encircling the neck, and depending before.

For the sake of regularity, we shall exhibit under this head a concise description of the different cities, towns, and other remarkable places, in this uncompact kingdom; noticing, as we proceed, the peculiarities of manners, soil, and country, where they are dissimilar to our general account.

The capital of Regal Prussia is Koningsberg, a city situated on the River Pregel, in latitude 54 degrees 42 minutes north, and in 21 degrees 35 minutes east longitude; founded by Premislaus I. King of Bohemia, in the year 1255, when that monarch brought assistance to the Teutonic Knights against the Pagan natives of Samland. It is properly divided into three towns, whose boundaries are formed by so many branches of the above river, over which there are seven bridges. The whole is of very considerable extent, including a vast collection of houses and streets; but neither are remarkable for their beauty, elegance, or regularity. An academy, founded by one of the earliest Dukes of Prussia, is the only literary institution deserving mention, and even this is in a very humble stile; but the Town House, the Exchange, and particularly the palace erected by the Margrave Albert, are handsome structures; the latter being extremely capacious, and properly ornamented with elegant courts and gardens. The citadel, erected in 1657, is a regular fortification of a square form, surrounded with broad ditches; but the present King of Prussia, shewing little attachment to this capital of his dominions, the elegant or defensive arts of architecture are almost totally disregarded: Koningsberg, however, still carries on a considerable trade in hemp and flax, though under the disadvantage of having its sea-port seven miles distant, at a place called Oillau.

Little Lithuania, a division of Royal Prussia, is a very sylvan country, and was almost depopulated

depopulated by a pestilence in 1710; but King Frederic William, by encouraging a number of foreigners to settle there, soon recovered the loss of inhabitants, and introduced at the same time the science of agriculture, which has now rendered this district abundantly fertile in corn and other necessaries of life. Memel is it's principal town, a well-fortified place on the lake of Curische Hoff, about eighty miles from Koningsberg, which carries on an extensive trade with several foreign nations, in flax, linned, thread, and hemp; but being entirely calculated for commercial purposes, it possesses little elegance in it's buildings: however, it has a strong citadel for it's defence.

Brandenburgh, the second division of the Prussian empire, is naturally a sterile country; but, under the auspices of the late and present sovereigns, has been much improved by every means which the most consummate wisdom could suggest. It is divided into the Middle Marck, the New Marck, and the Old Marck; which together contain upwards of an hundred and twenty towns, and three thousand villages, with nearly a million of inhabitants.

Kustrim, the capital of the New Marck, was only a fishing-village till 1537, when it was surrounded by a stone-wall, and otherwise so strongly fortified, that in 1631 Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden besieged it in vain. It is situated in a marsh at the conflux of the Oder and Warta; and has an arsenal remarkably well furnished, and a citadel which is deemed impregnable. The private edifices are neat and commodious; and the public ones are elegant and extensive.

Franckfort on the Oder, a city of the Middle Marck, is said to have been founded by Sunno, a prince of the Franks, in 1146; who, expelling the Vandals, planted a colony of his own nation in their stead. Different princes, at various periods, have contributed to it's beauty, and conferred considerable privileges upon it; particularly the Elector Sigismund, upon it's acceding to the Hanseatic League; and Joachim I. who founded an university there in 1506, and supplied it with learned professors from Leipfick. This city being of considerable extent, has spacious airy streets, lined with houses in a tolerably regular stile of architecture; and the commerce of the inhabitants is still very extensive, though not so lucrative as formerly.

Franckfort has stood the shock of various revolutions, and has confessed allegiance to different powers. The Emperor Charles IV. put it under the ban of the empire, and the inhabitants were obliged to pay him down twelve thousand marks of silver, to obtain a reconciliation. In 1631 the Swedes took it by storm, and put all the inhabitants to the sword without distinction, in revenge for the massacre of two thousand Swedes, whom the Emperor's general, Count Telly, had barbarously butchered in the city of Brandenburg: however, it was again restored to the Elector by the pacification concluded at Westphalia.

Berlin, the next city of consequence in this district, and the capital of all the King of Prussia's dominions, is one of the most extensive, beautiful, and populous places, in all Germany; consisting properly of five towns, united under one common council or government. It is adorned with many superb palaces, and other magnificent structures; the streets in general are broad, regular, and straight; and some of them very long and elegant, containing

containing several large and beautiful squares, and terminating in a variety of delightful walks. There are twenty-five churches, fourteen of which are Lutheran, eleven Calvinistical, and one Roman Catholic; an academy of sciences, another of sculpture and painting, a college of surgery and anatomy, five seminaries, and two beautiful public libraries.

This city stands on the banks of the River Spree, which flows through it in two capital branches, in 52 degrees 28 minutes north latitude, and 13 degrees 44 minutes east longitude; surrounded on all sides with beautiful gardens and vineyards; and, by a computation made upwards of two centuries ago, was supposed to contain about six thousand houses, and one hundred and thirty thousand inhabitants: but as it has since that period been rapidly increasing in buildings and population, it is more than probable that it is now thrice as large in each of those respects.

The entrance into Berlin is airy and elegant; and in proceeding along the beautiful new bridge over the Spree towards the palace, the eye of the traveller is attracted by a fine equestrian statue of Frederic William the Great, which was erected by Frederic I. and is esteemed an exquisite piece of workmanship. Both the man and horse are one entire piece, the casting of which cost forty thousand crowns: the Elector is represented in a Roman habit, somewhat above the natural proportion; and, on the supporting pedestal of white marble, is a beautiful basso-relievo, representing four slaves bound in chains to the corners of the base.

The king's palace, which was begun in 1696, by Frederic I. is a stately structure of free-stone, consisting of four stories, adorned with fine ceilings, large apartments, and the most superb furniture; in particular, the quantity of silver manufactured into tables, stands, lustres, chandeliers, and other kinds of ornamental furniture, is almost beyond conception. Among the paintings which adorn this superb palace are the pictures of Charles V. and his Empress; the frames of which are of solid silver, each weighing six hundred and sixty pounds: in short, such is the immense quantity of that costly metal in the various apartments, that four millions of dollars might with the utmost facility be realized, if the exigencies of the state required it.

The public rooms of the court are elegant to the last degree, but contain nothing extraordinary; and the private are generally furnished with tables, pens, ink, and loose papers, which indicate the dispatch of business more than royal state, and splendid retirement. The hall contains several good paintings; and the grand saloon is adorned with four pieces of tapestry, representing our Saviour driving the Money-Changers out of the Temple, his Washing the Disciples Feet, the Miraculous Draught of Fishes, and the Last Supper. The throne placed in the audience-chamber is covered with velvet embroidered with gold, in a very grand style, though not profusely loaded with ornaments; but the state-bed, in which it is usual for persons of the blood-royal to pass the first night after marriage, is superbly mounted with crimson velvet, worked with above two hundred cyphers of electoral crowns, all set with pearls.

The royal stables, which are spacious and magnificent, are decorated with several large pictures of the finest horses bred in the king's studs. The mangers are all hewn out of solid

solid stone, and the pillars of the stands are of iron-work adorned with the King's cypher gilt. Contiguous to this building are noble apartments appropriated to the use of the master of the horse and the inferior officers; who likewise occupy large rooms near the stables, in which are deposited a great deal of expensive furniture and harness, particularly the accoutrements of the horse on which Frederic I. rode at his public entry, which are principally of solid gold adorned with brilliants.

The Arsenal, which is one of the noblest structures of the kind in Europe, consists of four grand edifices, forming a spacious square, with four corresponding fronts, and a handsome portico at the entrance of each. The lower story is of rusticated architecture, with arched windows; and the upper is of the Corinthian order. Over the principal gate, in the centre of the building, is the model of Frederic I. in brass gilt, inclosed in an oval frame; the Four Cardinal Virtues, of gigantic proportions, stand below, and seem to cast an eye of complacent approbation on the picture; above which is his Majesty's Cypher supported by two men; and on the superior pediment is a beautiful basso-relievo representing Mars resting on a trophy, and looking down on a couple of slaves chained at his feet. The whole edifice is covered with a balustrade superbly finished with noble decorations of trophies and statues. Nor is the arsenal less magnificent internally than externally; the rooms of the upper story being filled with arms arranged in the most exact and pleasing order; and the lower rooms stored with brass guns, while the walls and pillars are covered with cuirasses and helmets.

The Opera-house is an elegant modern fabric; the front of which is adorned with a noble portico supported by six Corinthian columns, having this inscription on the architrave, '*Fredericus Rex Apollini et Musis*,' and over it a pediment adorned with basso-relievos and statues. The scenes are uncommonly splendid, and finished in an elegant stile; and the galleries, which are three in number, are said to be sufficiently capacious for two thousand persons. The columns which support the roof are disposed so as to throw the whole into a grand saloon, and the orchestra is generally furnished with about fifty performers. The entire expence of the opera is defrayed by the king; and, indeed, it is in some measure conducted so as to render it subservient to the views of government. The predilection of his majesty for the captivating science of music, and his own acquisitions in it, have combined to carry this entertainment to the highest degree of perfection.

The suburbs of Berlin are generally constructed of timber plaistered over, which gives the houses an appearance of stone; and the streets are broad, straight, and airy. The palace called Mon Bijou, or, My Jewel, a small elegant structure beautifully furnished, and surrounded with delightful gardens, which open to the river, is situated in the suburbs.

The palace of Charlottenburg stands about five miles from Berlin, and was founded by Frederic I. but finished by his present majesty in a stile of the utmost grandeur. There is a range of about ten apartments disposed with the utmost regularity, and adorned with white stucco and gilding. The ball-room does honour to the monarch's taste who designed it, having ten large windows on each side; and, besides being finished in the most

ornamental manner with stucco and gilding, it is adorned with a noble collection of busts, statues, and superb pier-glasses.

Brandenburg, the city from which the whole electorate takes its name, is pleasantly situated in 52 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, and in 13 degrees 12 minutes east longitude, on the banks of the River Havel; which, by means of different channels, not only divides the Old from the New Town, but likewise separates the fort from both. Each town is subject to one common magistracy, and contains two churches. The fort resembles a suburb, within the limits of which are contained the cathedral church, the houses of a majority of the members of the chapter, and a riding-school in which young gentlemen are instructed in horsemanship. The chapter is still kept up, though the bishopric is secularized, and consists of seven persons, namely, the provost, the dean, the senior, the sub-senior, and three other canons. Frederic II. conferred a peculiar distinction on these members, permitting them to wear a chapter-cross of gold, enamelled with violet, terminating in eight rays. A small colony of French Calvinists have established at this place a manufacture of cloth, fustian, and canvas; and indeed the trade of the town is rendered considerable by the navigation of the Havel, though, taken altogether, it is neither very large nor populous.

The third division of Brandenburg, or the Old Marck, according to some writers, obtains the name of the Galilee of Germany, on account of its great fertility in fruits and herbs.

Stendal, the capital of this district, stands on the banks of the Uchte, in a plain encircled by mountains. It is divided into four parishes, with as many principal churches, among which is the cathedral of St. Nicholas. The cloister of St. Catharine was formerly filled with nuns of the Benedictine order, and that of St. Anne with those of the order of St. Francis; but, upon the Reformation, they embraced the Protestant religion, and had a domina appointed over each. This place is respectable for having anciently belonged to the Hanseatic Confederacy, when it carried on an extensive trade; but its consequence would probably have been entirely lost, had not a colony of French refugees chosen this city for their retreat, and introduced several manufactures of public as well as private utility.

Potsdam, which lies only four miles south-west of Berlin, though in a different Marck, is most advantageously situated on a branch of the River Spree, and occupies a considerable extent of ground containing many regular and beautiful buildings. The Elector Frederic William first made this place a royal residence; and in 1662 built the castle, which was afterwards enlarged by Frederic I. and adorned with a stately portal. King Frederic William made some splendid additions to the beauty of the town; for which purpose he caused several morasses to be filled up and built upon, with a canal fifty paces in width, and two thousand in length, which was carried on from the Havel, through the centre of the town, to a branch of the same river: this canal is beautifully planted on both sides with trees, and surrounded with well-built houses. King Frederic II. added an additional story to the height of the castle, enlarged it with two wings, and adorned it with princely apartments. The ancient structures in the vicinity were demolished; and, in their
room,

room, uniform and superb buildings have been erected for the proprietors at the king's expence. The utmost elegance is conspicuous in almost every apartment of the castle; and the quantity of silver utensils and furniture is really prodigious. In this place the king avoids the empty ceremonies of a court, and restricts his daily expence within the bounds of a frugal œconomy; though he provides a handsome table in one of the rooms for his officers, and daily entertains at his own twelve persons, consisting of his most favoured ministers, the ambassadors of foreign princes; and the officers of his army, down to the ensign, in rotation, are the guests of their monarch.

Fronting the castle is a large square, adorned with Roman columns, in which the soldiers who keep garrison daily perform the manual exercise. The castle-garden is beautified with water-works, gilding and statues, in general by the best masters of sculpture; particularly a Neptune and Amphitrite seated in a sea-car, in a large basin opposite the east front of the palace, extremely admired.

A beautiful pyramidal obelisk of four sides, composed of variegated Silesian marble, stands in the market-place, the height of which is seventy feet; the pedestal is of white marble, having at each corner a small statue of the same; and on the centre of each side is a marble bust of the Prussian sovereigns, from Frederic I.

The Town Church, which stands at a small distance from the castle, is a fine and noble structure; but the Garrison Church, which contains the monument of King Frederic William, and is besides adorned with a lofty and beautiful tower, is more generally admired. The French Church, Council House, and Orphan House, founded in 1724, where upwards of two thousand soldiers children of both sexes are educated and maintained, are likewise neat edifices, and well adapted to their respective destinations.

In the vicinity of the town are a great number of beautiful vineyards, for the planting of which the Elector Frederic William caused layers to be brought out of the best vine countries; and in the Royal Park, which is adorned with vistas resembling the rays of a star, stands a celebrated hunting-seat known by the name of the Star.

Not far from Potsdam stands the palace of *Sans Souci*, a place, from the combined efforts of nature and art, consecrated to quiet and retirement. Soon after the accession of Frederic II. he caused this palace to be raised on a barren eminence in an exquisite and magnificent stile, both internally and externally. This eminence is dissected into six terraces, to each of which is an ascent of twelve steps; and against the walls which line the terraces are planted the choicest vine-stocks, which are protected by glass-cases. On the superior part of this rising-ground, which commands a prospect of Potsdam and the adjoining territories, stands the palace; which, though of inconsiderable dimensions, and only one story high, on account of it's regularity, elegance, and the united embellishments of painting and sculpture, excites general and deserved admiration. In the centre of the palace is a circular hall, lined with marble, and adorned with magnificent columns and beautiful paintings; but the most celebrated ornament is it's beautiful floor, the marble of which is disposed in the form of natural flowers, after the Florentine manner, and has a very pleasing effect. On it's top is a cupola, which supplies it with abundant light. One of the apartments in this charming retreat is wainscoted with cedar, ornamented with foliage of gold, and fitted for the reception of a small library. Behind the palace

palace is a covered semicircular passage, adorned with columns on each side. This beautiful palace is encircled on three sides with elegant gardens, in which are several fine statues of the most finished workmanship. These gardens, which do not extend above half an English mile, are terminated towards the east by an Egyptian pyramid, embellished with hieroglyphics; and, except in the sandiness of their walks, they exhibit as delightful a natural picture as can possibly be conceived.

Havelberg is seated on the Havel, by the winding of which stream it is rendered insular, and has no other communication with the main land but by three draw-bridges. This was an ancient episcopal see, founded in 496; the last of the bishops was the Elector Joachim Frederic, since whose time no prelate has ever been nominated to the succession; but the chapter still continues, and in 1755 its members were honoured by Frederic II. with the peculiar distinction of wearing a chapter-cross of gold, enamelled with purple, terminating in eight points. On the right-side is seen the Prussian Eagle, and on the four corners the letters F. R. On the reverse is a representation of the Virgin Mary, the patroness of the chapter, with the infant Jesus. This cross is worn appendant to a white watered ribband, terminated with purple.

Prussian Pomerania has Polish Prussia for its boundary on the east, Poland on the south, the dutchy of Mecklenburg on the west, and the Baltic on the north; its length being upwards of two hundred and eighty miles, and its breadth, at a medium, from thirty to sixty miles.

This is in general a very champaign country; the soil in many parts is sandy, and consequently not very rich: however, the inhabitants not only raise grain enough for their own consumption, but likewise a considerable quantity for exportation. Pomerania is watered by several navigable rivers, and contains some spacious lakes plentifully stocked with salmon and other fish.

This country is very populous in proportion to its extent, and contains sixty-eight towns, which are divided into mediate and immediate; the latter are immediately under the supreme tribunals of the country, and chuse their own magistracy; and the governing burgomasters of three capital towns of every province are honoured with a voice in the country diets: the former, on the other hand, are subordinate to the king's agents or nobility, take an oath of fidelity and allegiance to their lords and patrons, attend their courts, and have their magistrates appointed by their lords, and confirmed by the regency.

On the extinction of the family dukes of Pomerania in 1637, the electoral house of Brandenburg had the nearest claim to the dutchy; but at the treaty of Westphalia the greatest part of it was ceded to Sweden, with the reversion of the whole on the failure of the male line of the House of Brandenburg: however, by the peace concluded at Stockholm in 1720, Sweden again relinquished its pretensions to several extensive territories which were annexed for ever to the crown of Prussia:

The principal places in this dutchy, are as follow.

Stargard, the capital of all Farther Pomerania, stands on the banks of the Ihna, by means of which it has a free communication with the Baltic, and is a populous and handsome

some town. The church of St. Mary is much celebrated for the height of its roof, which is thought to exceed that of any church in Germany; besides which, the churches belonging to the Lutherans, and the German and French Calvinists, are beautiful fabrics.

This city carries on a considerable trade in tammies, druggets, and serges, and has several other flourishing manufactures. It is likewise adorned with a college, founded in 1631; and a free-school, which originally was a convent.

Cammin, a sea-port town, standing opposite to the Isle of Wollin, in 54 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, and 15 degrees 2 minutes east longitude, was formerly extremely insignificant; but since it has fallen under the Prussian government, it has been greatly enlarged and beautified; and from its different sources of navigation, fishery, and agriculture, draws a considerable share of affluence. This town was anciently an episcopal see, but by the treaty of Westphalia it was converted into a temporal principality, and bestowed on the electoral House of Brandenburg; and at the same time it was stipulated that, on the demise of the canons then living, the electoral family should be at liberty to abolish the chapter: however, it still subsists, and is kept at the usual place.

Colberg, a famous and well-fortified town on the Persante, which at a small distance from thence falling into the Baltic, forms the commodious harbour of Munde, is a large and flourishing place, and carries on an extensive and valuable foreign trade. It contains a collegiate church, a religious foundation for young ladies, and three other churches, with a Latin school. In the vicinity is a meadow surrounded by the Persante, in which are some salt-springs; but, on account of the scarcity of fuel, little salt has ever been obtained from them. This town was furiously bombarded by the Russians, but without effect.

Coslin, a town situated on the River Nisebec, about ten miles east of Colberg, in papal times was much resorted to by pilgrims, who visited a celebrated image of the Virgin Mary formerly belonging to the place. In 1504, the whole town was reduced to ashes by an accidental conflagration; and in 1718 it again experienced the like calamity: however, it has since been rebuilt with additional splendor, and now contains a considerable number of beautiful public and private edifices, chiefly raised by the munificence of Frederic William, in honour of whom a stone statue is erected in the centre of the market-place.

Stettin, or Old Stettin, by some reputed the capital of all Pomerania, is a large, beautiful, and well-fortified city, situated on an eminence near the River Oder, in latitude 53 degrees 36 minutes north, and in 14 degrees 26 minutes east longitude. This place is the residence of the regency, contains a College of Physicians, with a Board of Health, a Chamber of Commerce instituted in 1755, a Royal Seminary, and a General Superintendency of the Hither and Farther Pomerania. The castle in which the above colleges are convened, the arsenal, cathedral, and some of the parochial churches, are much admired for the neatness of their architecture. This city is furnished with a commodious dock for ship-building, and carries on a variety of manufactures; but the inhabitants subsist principally by their extensive foreign traffic. The exports consist of a

variety of articles too numerous to be particularized; and, in a word, Stettin may be considered as the centre of commercial exchange between Poland, Germany, and the Baltic.

The inhabitants of this city are celebrated for their affability to strangers, and the bravery they have displayed in several vigorous sieges; particularly in 1677, when they held out five months against Frederick William the Great, and saw the greatest part of their city reduced to ashes before they would even deign to listen to terms of the most honourable and advantageous capitulation.

Having noticed the principal places in Pomerania subject to the Prussian crown, it may not be improper to introduce in this place some account of Stralsund, though subject to Sweden; as, in territories so detached, and property so confounded, strict regularity cannot always be observed, without being detrimental to geographical minuteness.

Stralsund, the capital of that portion of Pomerania which still owns the Swedish government, is a free city, situated in a strait of the sea opposite to the Isle of Rugen, in latitude 54 degrees 26 minutes north, and in 13 degrees 22 minutes east longitude. This is a strongly fortified place, furnished with an excellent haven which carries ships into the very centre of the town; and the trade, both by sea and land, is lucrative and extensive. The private houses in general have a neat and uniform appearance, and the public structures are well adapted to their respective destinations. Charles XII. of Sweden ennobled the magistracy, and Frederic I. extended this honour even to the members of the council. This was formerly one of the Hanse Towns, and made a distinguished figure in that respectable confederacy. Stralsund has suffered much by the ravages of war; particularly in 1678, when it was so furiously bombarded by Frederic William, Elector of Brandenburg, that it surrendered on the third day of the siege, after the demolition of near eighteen hundred public and private edifices.

The duchy of Magdeburg has Brandenburg and Mecklenburg on the north; Anhalt and Halberstadt on the south and south-west; Upper Saxony on the east; and Brunswick Wolfenbüttele on the west; being from fifty to sixty miles in length, and about thirty in breadth. This was formerly an archiepiscopal see, erected at the request of the Emperor Otho I. with subjection in spirituals to the Pope alone; its prelate being primate of all Germany till the Reformation, when the canons having embraced the doctrines of Luther, chose the Elector of Brandenburg's son administrator of the archbishopric; after which it remained in secular hands till 1648, when it was stipulated by the treaty of Munster, that after the demise of the then administrator, the whole country should devolve on the Elector of Brandenburg as a secular estate and dukedom, being esteemed an equivalent for the Upper Pomerania, which by the same treaty was ceded to the King of Sweden.

Magdeburg, the capital, formerly belonging to the Hanseatic Confederacy, and now the metropolis of the circle of Lower Saxony, stands on the Elbe, about thirty-nine miles south-west of Brandenburg. The antiquity of this city transcends that of almost any other in Germany, its name importing Maiden Town, which, by etymologists, is said to be derived from the worship paid to Venus by the inhabitants, till her image and temple were destroyed

destroyed by the command of Charlemagne; who, being charmed with the situation, raised St. Stephen's church, and adorned it with abundance of treasure.

When tournaments were first introduced into Germany, this city was the scene of their exhibition; to which no persons were originally admitted who could not prove the nobility of their extraction both by father and mother, and the purity of their own honour, particularly with regard to the ladies.

In 1013, Magdeburg was almost entirely demolished by Boleslaus King of Poland; and, in 1180, was totally reduced to ashes. It has at different periods been put under the ban of the empire, and harraßed with a variety of long and severe sieges; particularly in 1631, when the Emperor's general Count Tilly took it by storm, after a desperate resistance; on which the inhabitants were barbarously put to the sword, and the town laid in ruins. The general having ordered his soldiers to spare neither age nor sex, they ripped up the pregnant women, tore the sucklings from their mothers breasts, and ravished the virgins in the open streets; to avoid the effects of which shocking inhumanity, the wretched inhabitants in numbers rushed into the Elbe, or cast themselves into the fire before the face of this brutish general, who was so far lost to every feeling that actuates a rational creature, that in his cups he used to boast of his wanton cruelty, and called this massacre the Marriage Feast of Magdeburg.

This city, however, has received great assistance from the Brandenburg family, who have repaired it's fortifications, and erected several beautiful fabrics; and, among others, a beautiful palace, which, for extent and the uniformity of the surrounding edifices, has few equals.

The Elbe wafts merchant-ships from various nations up to the quay, and forms an island before the town, which is united to it and the continent by two bridges, the passes being defended by strong stone forts.

Twenty-four miles north-west of the last-mentioned place stands Hall, on the River Sala, a large and flourishing town, celebrated for it's university, and salt-springs which were discovered before the Christian æra. Frederick I. of Prussia was the founder of the university in 1694; which, from the time of it's institution to the year 1744 inclusive, had admitted twenty-nine thousand two hundred and twenty students, several of whom were of the highest rank in Germany; but from that period to the present, the celebrity of this seminary has been rapidly increasing. Indeed, for academic discipline, the abilities of the professors, and cheapness of living, few universities can rival this, and scarcely any exceed it. The magistracy of Hall possess extensive privileges, and exercise almost unbounded power by constitutional grants; but, far from being oppressive or severe, their extensive jurisdiction is principally applied to redress grievances, to protect the police, and to promote the general happiness of the inhabitants. In this town are various manufactories for gloves, stuffs, ribbands, gold, silver, and silk; which last-mentioned branch is in a very flourishing state.

Glauch, another town of some importance, lies so near Hall, that it has the appearance of a suburb to it: however, it is under it's proper magistrates, and is much celebrated for it's public schools; (in which almost every language and science are taught) it's Orphan-house,

house, Dispensary, Elaboratory, Academy, Museum, and Printing-houses: the Orphan-house, in particular, is one of the noblest and most benevolent institutions in Germany, comfortably maintaining, educating, and providing for a prodigious number of those unhappy innocents, whose early loss of every parental indulgence cannot be sufficiently compensated by the most liberal aids of beneficence.

The principality of Halberstadt is surrounded by Anhalt, Magdeburg, Brunswic, and Hildesheim; extending from east to west about forty-two miles, and from north to south about thirty-three: and being blessed with a soil extremely fertile, and several manufactures peculiarly flourishing, the natives have but few difficulties to contend with, and few natural wants to be supplied.

The capital, and indeed the only city of consequence, bears the name of the principality, and is situated on the River Hotheim, in 52 degrees 7 minutes north latitude, and 11 degrees 15 minutes east longitude. This town makes a tolerably regular and beautiful appearance; the buildings are generally uniform, the streets straight, and some structures really elegant. In 1752, the surrounding walls were demolished, and the moats filled up and formed into a perfect level, which has been converted into a plantation of mulberry-trees. The cathedral dedicated to St. Peter is an old, but venerable and majestic pile, built with a very durable species of free-stone. The chapter is composed of a provost, a dean, senior, sub-senior, and sixteen canons, four of whom are of the Romish church, and the rest Lutherans: they were honoured, in 1754, with a chapter-cross of gold, enamelled with white, and divided into eight points; in the centre of which, on one side, is the Prussian Eagle displayed, and on the reverse the image of St. Stephen. This cross is worn on a deep scarlet ribband bordered with black.

Halberstadt is the seat of all the state courts and offices; it contains also several Lutheran collegiate churches and schools, three convents of monks, two nunneries, several Catholic and Calvinistical places of religious worship, and a Jewish synagogue.

The county of Glatz, another appendage of the Prussian crown, lies between Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia, being on all sides surrounded with mountains, which render it very difficult of access, even by the best roads that can possibly be constructed. This county is thirty-eight miles long, and about twenty-three broad; the surface is everywhere diversified with hills and dales, woods, streams, and meadows, interspersed with towns and villages: however, it produces more grain than is sufficient for the consumption of the natives, is plentifully stocked with cattle and game, and well supplied with fresh-water fish.

Glatz is likewise famous for its mineral springs and warm baths. On an eminence east of the River Biela, at a small distance from the village of Upper Thalheim, the water gushes from the fissures of a rock; which fissures were formerly seventy in number, in some of which the stream is equal in thickness to a man's arm. Nothing can be more beautifully pellucid than this water, though impregnated with a strong sulphureous smell, and the degree of heat varying in the different fissures from nearly boiling hot to only tepid, and even almost cold.

This country was ceded to the King of Prussia in 1742; the capital bears the same name,

name, and is advantageously situated on the declivity of a hill, in 50 degrees 36 minutes north latitude, and in 16 degrees 21 minutes east longitude. The houses in general command a fine and extensive prospect of the country; and on the summit of the hill stands the castle, which formerly was divided into three parts, called the Lower, Middle, and Upper Palaces.

Since Glatz fell into the hands of the Prussians, the old citadel has been strengthened and beautified, and commodious barracks have been erected, capable of containing a numerous garrison. This city contains a college, two convents, and several churches, and carries on a considerable trade.

The principality of Minden was ceded to the Elector of Brandenburg at the treaty of Munster, and lies to the west of the Bishopric of Osnaburg, being about a hundred and fourteen miles in circumference. It is in general a fertile country; and the inhabitants, by applying themselves diligently to agriculture, are not only enabled to answer every demand of domestic consumption, but to sell considerable quantities of grain to their neighbours.

Minden, the capital, is a compact and well-fortified town, standing on the west of the Weser, in latitude 52 degrees 31 minutes north, and in 8 degrees 38 minutes east longitude. It's commodious situation for trade and navigation, and it's brewery of a singular kind of white beer much admired, supply the inhabitants with the means of a comfortable subsistence. The cathedral is a noble and spacious pile in the Gothic taste, whose chapter consists of eighteen persons, partly Catholics and partly Lutherans, all honoured with a chapter-cross appendant to an azure ribband; which distinction was conferred by the king in 1756. In 1529, the Reformation commenced here with such outrageous zeal, that the chapter was compelled to quit the city; for which the inhabitants were put under the ban of the empire, and; in consequence, obliged to surrender their town to Charles V. Indeed, this city has suffered excessively on account of religion at different periods. In 1628, Count Tilly took it by storm, and put near three thousand of the inhabitants to the sword: it afterwards fell into the hands of the Swedes, who were invited by the Protestant inhabitants to protect them from the bigotry of the Catholics; but, by the treaty of Westphalia, it was confirmed to the Elector of Brandenburg. This city will ever be famous in history for the memorable battle fought upon the plain in it's vicinity on the first of August 1759, in which the Confederate Army commanded by Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick totally routed the French, the troops of the Allied Army, particularly the British infantry, signalizing their valour in an extraordinary manner; and, had the cavalry been headed by an officer zealous in the service, the victory would unquestionably have been as compleat as any recorded in the annals of war.

Lubeck, a small town sixteen miles west of Minden, was fortified as early as the year 1279; and enjoys many immunities, and a jurisdiction over an extensive district. The inhabitants are chiefly of the Lutheran persuasion, and carry on a pretty lucrative trade.

The county of Ravensburg is environed by the bishoprics of Munster and Osnaburg, the principality of Minden, the counties of Schauenburg and Lippe, the bishopric

of Padderborn, and the county of Rittberg; being of no very extensive limits, nor remarkable for the fertility of it's soil. The principal employment of the inhabitants is spinning and weaving linen, which is exported from thence to every part of Europe.

Bielfield, the capital of the county, stands at the foot of a mountain on the banks of the Lutterbach, and is a well-built town, containing near a thousand dwelling-houses, two principal Lutheran churches, a Calvinistical church, a Popish chapel, a Franciscan monastery, an infirmary, and an orphan-house, with several other public edifices. This is the seat of the provincial diets, and was formerly a member of the Hanseatic Confederacy; but at present it is only famous for a flourishing linen manufactory.

Herford, formerly called Hervorden, is watered by two considerable rivers, the Werra and the Aa, which divide it into three parts. This town contains a large number of elegant houses belonging to the burghers; and several celebrated religious institutions, particularly an abbey standing in a quarter called the Liberty, which is an imperial, free, secular foundation, the abbess being stiled Princess and Prelates of the Holy Roman Empire, and having a seat accordingly among the abbesses on the Rhenish Bench, and at the diets of the Westphalian Circle. This foundation is Lutheran, and it's members are honoured with a cross pendant to a scarlet ribband bordered with silver, suspended from the right-shoulder to the left-side; on one side of which is the Virgin Mary standing with the infant Jesus, with this inscription, '*Meminisse et imitari*;' and on the reverse is the name of the abbess.

The province of Lingen is situated between the bishoprics of Munster and Osnaburg; being about fifteen miles long and ten broad, enjoying a fertile soil, and producing plenty of pit-coal and stone. On the demise of William III. of England, this country, which belonged to that monarch in the right of the Princess of Orange, was seized by the King of Prussia, and incorporated with Tecklenburg.

Lingen, the capital, stands on the River Ems. which is here very broad and deep; the city was once defended by a castle and other fortifications, but they are now fallen to decay. At this place the Prince of Orange erected an academy and Latin school, in order to facilitate the conversion of the natives to the Protestant religion, the whole country being at that time over-run with Papists. In the year 1674, the Roman Catholic clergy excited a commotion, which was suppressed by the Prince of Orange in person; after which, a Romish priest was made liable to the severest punishments, if he slept one night at this place without permission from the magistracy.

The dutchy of Cleves borders on the bishopric of Munster, the dutchy of Berg, the principality of Mors, and the archbishoprics of Cologne, Brabant, and Gueldres; extending about forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. This country is copiously supplied with corn, fruits, and plants; abounds in excellent pasturage; and breeds a considerable number of black-cattle and horses. It is intersected by several capital streams, which afford plenty of fish, particularly salmon, pike, and carp.

The inhabitants are chiefly of the Romish persuasion; but both Protestants and Jews are indulged in the free exercise of their religious opinions.

Cleves,

Cleves, the capital, (in Latin *Clivia*) is said to derive it's name from it's ridgy situation, standing between the Rhine and the Maese, in a most delightful country, in 51 degrees 15 minutes north latitude, and 6 degrees 4 minutes east longitude. The town is not very large, but pleasant, handsome, and populous, containing many beautiful structures belonging to persons of quality; though, it must be confessed, the houses of the burghers are proportionally mean. The castle is spacious, and advantageously situated on the top of a hill, being furnished with several princely apartments devoted to the use of his Prussian majesty when he visits this part of his dominions. The River Hel, which glides along by the foot of the castle, communicates with the Rhine, and is navigable for small vessels from the very town. The beautiful park of Prince Maurice of Nassau, as it is called, lies on the west of the city; in which are many ponds, canals, fine water-works, grottos, and other rural embellishments. From the adjoining hill of Sternberg may be seen the city of Utrecht, though upwards of fifty miles distant, with near forty other cities and populous towns. The prince's house stands embowered in a wood; and, among other curiosities, contains a noble collection of Roman urns, and several other monuments of antiquity.

Emmeric, or Embric, (in Latin *Emericum*) is a spacious, rich, and beautiful city, pleasantly situated on the east of the Rhine, and is venerable for it's connection with the Hanseatic Confederacy. A small garrison is always kept up at this place; but the fortifications, though once very strong, are now become ruinous and neglected. The governors, with the majority of the magistrates, are Protestants; but the citizens in general are of the Roman Catholic persuasion.

Wesel (in Latin *Wesalia*) is the most extensive, populous, and well-built town, in the whole dutchy, an ancient member of the Hanseatic League, and an imperial city; but was favoured by the dukes of Cleves with an exemption from the contributions paid by those towns to the military chest of the empire. It rose to the greatest affluence on account of the concourse of merchants who fled thither from the persecutions in the Spanish Netherlands, being at that time garrisoned by the Dutch, to whom it was mortgaged by the Elector of Brandenburg. In 1672, it was taken and sacked by the French, but restored to the Elector two years afterwards. However, though this place acknowledges the King of Prussia for it's sovereign, it stipulated for the continuance and permanency of it's ancient laws. The citadel, which stands towards the Rhine, is strong, and capable of making a good defence; and the arsenal is well supplied with arms. The Calvinists, Lutherans, and Roman Catholics, have their respective churches; besides which, there is a Lutheran academy, with three monasteries, an institution for Lutheran ladies called Averdorff, and a commendam of the order of St. John.

The principality of Meurs, or Mors, is surrounded by the dutchies of Cleves and Berg, the archbishopric of Cologne, and the dutchy of Gueldres; being only about thirty miles in circumference.

This district abounds in corn, cattle, and venison; and, being washed on one side by the Rhine, and intersected by several considerable streams, is well supplied with plenty of

of excellent fish, and furnished with the means of an easy communication with other countries.

Meurs has it's own peculiar regency, which conducts the general affairs of government; but those things which relate to war and police are under the direction of the Tax-council, subordinate to the War and Demefne-Chamber.

The only place deserving notice in this principality, is Meurs, a small but well-fortified place, defended by a good citadel, and honoured with being the seat of convention for the provincial colleges.

The county of Marck, which is bounded by the bishopric of Munster, and the dutchies of Westphalia, Berg, and Cleves, is esteemed the largest in all the circle of Westphalia. The soil is abundantly fertile in every species of corn; and the inhabitants, who are a mixture of Protestants and Roman Catholics, carry on several valuable manufactures.

Ham, (in Latin *Hammona*) the capital of the county, is situated near the influx of the Aße into the Lippe; and is a pretty large and populous city, surrounded with ditches, ramparts, and pallifadoes, though destitute of walls. The citadel, in which the commandant resides, contains also a *gymnasium illustre*, belonging to the Calvinists, in which are several professors. This was formerly one of the Hanse Towns, and even now carries on a pretty extensive trade; but has several times been almost laid in ashes, particularly in 1741, when near four hundred houses were levelled with the ground: however, it seems to have improved with every calamity; for more elegant buildings have constantly been erected in the room of those which were consumed.

Soest, (in Latin *Susatum*) a city of considerable circuit, formerly one of the Hanse Towns, contains several extensive courts and gardens, and is fortified with double walls, towers, and moats. The Roman Catholics possess the cathedral, and two monasteries; but the Lutheran inhabitants being most predominant, have seven churches; and a celebrated Latin school, one of the three Archigymnasias, as they are called, of Westphalia. The principal trade of the place consists in corn, great quantities being raised in it's own territories, which are pretty extensive.

East Friesland, which obtains likewise the title of the Earldom of Embden, lies in the circle of Westphalia, and is bounded on one side by the German Ocean; but was seized by the King of Prussia on the demise of the Emperor, Charles VI. the last count of East Friesland, who departed this life without any issue.

The city of Embden, the capital, is spacious, rich, and populous, situated on the north side of the River Ems, fifty-five miles distant from Bremen; being strongly fortified on the land-side with a double foss, bulwarks and bastions; and, towards the sea, by the river and a rampart. The Island of Neßa, which lies in the Dollart Bay, opposite the city, forms a capacious and excellent harbour, scarcely exceeded by any on the German coast. However, artificial canals are so constructed as to convey large vessels into the centre of the town; and, by opening the sluices, the surrounding country may be entirely flooded, and the place rendered inaccessible. Embden is divided into three parts, the Old Town, the Faldem, and the Suburbs; in all which the buildings in general are lofty and neat, and even

even some of them extremely magnificent. The inhabitants are industrious and commercial, as well as jealous of their liberties, and spirited in their just support.

The counties of Lippe and Tecklenburg, with the dutchy of Juliers, likewise lie in the circle of Westphalia, and are subject to the Prussian crown; but neither of them contain any thing worthy of a geographer's attention.

Upper Gelderland, or the division of this country appendant on Prussia, is surrounded by Dutch Brabant, Liege, Gulich, Cleves, and Cologne; being about thirty-five miles long, and twenty-four broad.

This country remained in the possession of the Spaniards after the United States had acquired their independency; but, being conquered by the allies, was claimed by the King of Prussia, for whom it was very commodiously situated; and by the treaty of Utrecht it was agreed that he should retain possession of such parts of it as he at that time actually occupied.

The town of Gelder, from which the province receives its name, stands in a plain on an island formed by the River Niers, which divides itself into two branches at this place. It is well fortified, and reputed one of the strongest towns in the Netherlands. The castle is extremely ancient, and was formerly the residence of the governors, having been built, as is generally conjectured, by Wichard, the first lord of this country; whose heiress espousing Otho of Nassau, created count by the Emperor Henry IV. it remained vested in his descendants for several centuries; but his posterity at last failing, it came to the Count of Egmont, who sold it to Charles Duke of Burgundy; and, by an intermarriage, it ultimately devolved on the House of Austria.

Gelder has frequently experienced the calamities of war, and submitted to different conquerors, before it was finally confirmed to his Prussian majesty, as mentioned above.

A few miles to the east of Gelder stands Wacktendenck. This place derives its principal strength from its marshy situation, and particularly from its ditches, which may occasionally be filled from the River Niers. At the commencement of the wars in the Low Countries, Gelder was taken by Louis Count of Nassau, brother to the Prince of Orange, who marched an army over the ice, which the inhabitants had incautiously neglected to break. Count Mansfield, the Spanish general, furiously bombarded it in 1588, and was the first who used bombs at a siege; notwithstanding which, the garrison, assisted by the burghers, made such a vigorous defence, that the Spaniards, after a three months siege, were about to retire, when it was delivered up through the treachery of the governor.

The principality of Neufchatel in Switzerland, which devolved on the Prussian family as heirs of the House of Chalons, is surrounded by Basil, Biel, Bern, and Franche Comté; and extends about twelve leagues in length and six in breadth. The French language is generally prevalent in this district; and the inhabitants more strongly resemble that nation in their manners, customs, and institutions, than the Germans or Swiss. In many respects they are still a free and independent people, no resolutions being adopted but by the unanimous concurrence of the three estates.

Neufchatel, the capital, is situated at the northern extremity of a lake to which it communicates a name, and is extremely well built, and adorned with several beautiful fountains.

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The government is lodged in the hands of sixty burghers, who enjoy very extensive privileges: the most considerable of which consists in being fellow-citizens with the Canton of Bern, which is not only the protector, but umpire in all differences which originate between them and their sovereign; a circumstance that secured their civil and religious rights while under a Popish administration.

The last country we shall mention, as subject to Prussia, is the dutchy of Silesia; which, partly by cessions, and partly by usurpations, is at last almost entirely fallen under the power of this crown; so that it may with great propriety be considered as a Prussian province. It is surrounded by Bohemia, Moravia, Poland, Lusatia, Brandenburg, and Hungary; extending about two hundred and twenty-five miles in length, and about one hundred in extreme breadth; being divided into a number of principalities and lordships, the property and jurisdiction of which are either immediately vested in the king, or deputed to the great lords. The inhabitants are composed of an assemblage of Germans, Moravians, and Poles; and are supposed to amount to about a million and a half, who are all allowed the free exercise of their several religious tenets, and speak languages as different as the nations of which they were originally composed.

Breslaw, the capital, is situated on the banks of the River Oder, which washes the walls on the north, and unites itself with the Ohlau, pursuing a winding course through Old Breslaw. The Emperor Charles IV. made very considerable additions to this city, which anciently was entirely surrounded by the above-mentioned rivers, but now extends a great way on each side; and, including the suburbs, it is no less than nine English miles in circumference. The fortifications, though regular, are not very important; but the great number of squares, noble edifices, and spacious streets, contained in this city, give the whole an elegant and pleasing appearance. In the quarter called Dominfel, which lies without the circuit of the town, stand the Citadel of St. John, the Abbey of the Holy Cross, the Episcopal Palace, and several churches; but to particularize all the beautiful public and private edifices within the entire circumference of Breslaw, would be tedious, and perhaps uninteresting.

Besides a governor and several judiciary courts, this city has a Court of Exchequer, a War and Domain Office, a College of Physicians, and a Mint; and Frederick II. honoured it with the third rank among his capital cities, granting it precedence next to Berlin and Königsberg. The magistracy and consistory are both composed of Lutherans, though other persuasions are equally prevalent among the inhabitants. This city at present is the centre of all the Silesian trade, and carries on several extensive manufactories. It first fell under the Prussian government in 1741; but being vigorously attacked in 1757 by a strong detachment of the Austrian army, it was obliged to capitulate: however, in the same year, the King of Prussia again possessed himself of this place, and made the Austrian garrison, which amounted to near eight thousand men, prisoners of war.

Brieg, (in Latin *Brēga*) the capital of a circle of the same name, stands on the River Oder, and is not only remarkably well fortified, but is one of the largest, richest, and most elegant cities of all Silesia. The suburbs are four in number, and occupy considerable extent. The castle, the ancient residence of the Dukes of Brieg, was destroyed by fire in

in 1741, and has never since been rebuilt. The inhabitants are composed of Lutherans, Calvinists, and Roman Catholics; who have their respective establishments for performing divine service.

The town of Schweidnitz, the capital of a circle bearing the same name, is a strong fortress situated on the little River Weistritz, in one of the most delightful spots of all Silesia. Its ancient defence consisted in a triple wall; but by the care of Frederick II. it was fortified with regular works of prodigious strength. The greatest part of this city was consumed by fire in 1716, but it has since been rebuilt with additional magnificence. The Austrians took it in 1757, after a hot siege of sixteen days, during which infinite damage was done to the finest structures: however, the Prussians next year recovered it's possession, after a siege of equal duration.

Till about the tenth century the very name of Prussians does not occur in the annals of Europe; and even after that period, the history of this country, like that of the other northern kingdoms, seems involved in the clouds of fiction, and lost in the fields of romance. The natives, however, from the earliest ages of information, appear to have been a brave and warlike people, tenacious of their hereditary rights, and unsubmissive to the neighbouring princes; who, under the specious pretext of converting them to Christianity, only sought an opportunity of subjecting them to the yoke of servitude. In particular, they defended themselves in the most resolute manner against the Polish kings, who always beheld them with an ambitious eye; and one of them, Boleslaus IV. in 1163, lost his army and his life in an unfortunate battle with this warlike nation. Their independence, however, was not always to remain inviolate: for, during the crusades, the German Knights of the Teutonic order undertook the conversion of the Pagan Prussians, not by arguments, but by the sword; who, in reward for their trouble, were to obtain the property of the country they were about to subdue. A long series of wars ensued, in which the Prussian Aborigines were almost extirpated by the religious knights; who, after committing the most horrid barbarities, in the thirteenth century repaired the ravages they had made, by inviting emigrants from Germany to re-people the country. After this incredible effusion of blood, the Teutonic Knights concluded a peace with Casimir King of Poland; by which it was stipulated, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free and independent province under the king's protection; and that the knights and grand-master should possess the other part, acknowledging themselves, however, under the Polish vassalage. These partial terms proved the source of new wars, in which the Knights vainly endeavoured to obtain more equitable concessions. At last, in 1525, Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg, the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, concluded a peace at Cracow, by which he was recognized Duke of the Eastern Division of Prussia, (for that reason formerly called Ducal Prussia) the inheritance to descend to his heirs male, and on failure of male issue, to the heirs male of his brothers and sisters respectively; still, however, to remain as a fief of Poland. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic Knights in Prussia, after it had prevailed near three hundred years. Frederick William, the Elector of Brandenburg, deservedly surnamed the Great, in 1675 had Ducal Prussia again confirmed to him; and, by the convention of Welau and Bromberg, it was exempted
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by Casimir King of Poland from the vassalage it had formerly owed him; on which Frederick William and his successors were declared sovereign and independent lords of the territories at that time in their possession.

The present King of Prussia, in the Memoirs of his Family, informs us, that this prince began his reign under the most desperate and humiliating circumstances. 'He was,' says he, 'a prince without territories; an elector without power; a successor without inheritance; and just in the flower of his youth, an age which, exposed to the boisterous current of its passions, renders mankind almost incapable of direction: yet he gave proofs of the most consummate wisdom, and of every virtue that could render him worthy of command; he regulated his finances, apportioned his expences to his revenues, and emancipated himself from those ignorant or corrupt ministers who had contributed to the misfortunes of his people. Europe in him beheld a prince whose actions displayed the noblest soul, and the most superior genius; one while tempered with prudence, another time bearing that character of enthusiasm which forces our admiration: a prince who constantly repaired his losses without foreign succours; who formed and executed all his projects himself; who by his wisdom retrieved a desolated country: by his policy and prudence acquired new territories; by his valour assisted his allies, and defended his people; a prince, in short, who was uniformly great in all his undertakings.' This magnanimous prince died of a dropsy in 1688, and left his son Frederick for his successor.

As the Protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the Margrave Albert, and the Electors of Brandenburg had continued unshaken in the same faith, the Protestant interest espoused their cause so much, that Frederick, the son of Frederick William the Great, was raised to the dignity of a king, in a solemn assembly of the states of the empire; and soon after was recognized as such by all the powers of Christendom. This prince, however, possessed few shining virtues or qualities which do honour to the exalted station he filled; but his son Frederick William, who ascended the throne in 1713, shewed himself a perfect master in political knowledge, to which he joined uncommon intrepidity and address; but he frequently exerted each at the expence of that humanity and greatness of mind which ought ever to adorn a monarch's heart. He amassed so much money during his reign, that his present Prussian majesty found ample resources for pursuing the most important plans; and, at the death of Frederick William, which happened in 1740, was perhaps one of the richest princes in Europe.

His son Frederick III. the reigning monarch, was born in 1712, and began his reign in 1740. The early years of this great prince seem to have exhibited few traits of those shining qualities which have since distinguished him: he was, however, strongly attached to literature and the polite arts from his first dawns of reason, and always evinced a strong predilection for Gallic breeding and delicacy of manners, so contrary to the inelegant models which at that time prevailed in his father's court. His father's unconquerable ebriety, (a vice which the young prince held in the utmost abhorrence) added to some other unpropitious circumstances, determined him to quit his native country in a clandestine manner, and to retire to the British court, where he might live under the protection of his uncle George I. till either the death of his father, or some fortunate con-

currence

course of events, should remove every impediment to his return. But whatever might be his real intentions, it is certain that he had concerted his intended plan with a young officer of the Gens d'Armes named Katte, and two others. The secret, however, having been discovered before it was ripe for execution, the Prince, Katte, and one of the other confederates, were seized; and a council of war being assembled, to enquire into the conduct of the Prince's confidants, one of them was cashiered, and condemned to three years imprisonment; and the other, who had retired to foreign countries, was outlawed: but, with respect to Katte, the votes were equally divided whether he should be put to death or acquitted; on which the affair was of necessity submitted to the king's decision. When matters were at this crisis, Katte, in the most pathetic terms, implored the royal clemency, and had his solicitations well supported by the interest of many persons of distinction: but all was without effect; the king ordered him to be beheaded, and this severe sentence was accordingly put in execution. The prince, who had been some time under confinement, was soon after set at liberty; but, that he might be sensible how highly he had fallen under his father's displeasure, and atone for his offence by a severe though singular punishment, he was compelled to espouse Elizabeth Christina of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle, a princess for whom he never had entertained the smallest degree of affection, and who was selected for his consort purposely to mortify and perplex him. The prince, however, well knowing that it would be in vain to oppose argument against the rigid dictates of an arbitrary and implacable parent, submitted to this union with the best grace he could; but thinking the claim of filial duty was sufficiently satisfied by the external ceremony, he abstained, during his father's life, from the nuptial intercourse. Thus secluded from public avocations and domestic engagements, he devoted his whole time to literary acquisitions and useful speculation; hence he has acquired a fund of classical and political knowledge which distinguishes him above every reigning sovereign in the whole world. However, after his father's death, whom in his Memoirs he characterizes as a monarch of the most consummate abilities, he did an act of justice to the princess thus involuntarily forced upon him, by receiving her as his consort, and acknowledging her before the whole court; but though his Prussian majesty has always behaved with a respectful deference to his queen, he has never lived with her in habits of conjugal society.

To give a just character of this illustrious sovereign, is perhaps as difficult a task as ever was undertaken; and future historians will unquestionably be much divided in their censure and applause. Perhaps no man ever possessed more shining qualities and exalted virtues which were shaded by as many opposite vices. In some instances we behold in him the father of his country, the avenger of the oppressed, the liberal rewarder of merit, and the munificent patron of genius; in others we are compelled to regard him as the haughty despot, the unprincipled plunderer of nations, the subverter of justice, and the pest of the human race. Though distinguished for martial prowess, consummate policy, and great literary abilities; though universally allowed to be the greatest and wisest of monarchs; his general character cannot command our esteem: and when we reflect on

the perfidy, rapine, and injustice, which have shaded his most brilliant actions, we must lament that mixture of vice which deforms a sovereign who seemed born to excite universal admiration.

Frederick William, the Prince Royal of Prussia, was born in 1744; and, having been twice married, has issue by both consorts.

C H A P. VI.

GERMANY.

THE empire of Germany, which obtains the name of *Allemagne* from the French, and *Deutschland* from the natives, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the north; by Poland, Hungary, and Bohemia, on the east; by Switzerland and the Alps, on the south; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries on the west: extending from 45 degrees 4 minutes to 54 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and from 6 to 19 degrees 45 minutes east longitude; and being, in it's greatest extent from north to south, six hundred and forty miles in length, and five hundred and fifty in breadth.

This country possesses several peculiarities which command the attention of every person attached to local discrimination. It is the seat of a great empire, and of many dependent sovereignties of different denominations, and under various modifications of government; it's affairs are blended with those of every other nation of Europe, of which it may be considered both as the head and the centre; and it's princes are constantly forming alliances which pave their way to the principal thrones of Europe; four of which, Great Britain, Poland, Sweden, and Prussia, are already filled with them. In this country, too, the glorious Reformation first began; and a number of the most beneficial discoveries and inventions are to be ascribed to the ingenuity and penetration of it's natives.

Though Germany, taken in a general sense, may be said to enjoy a temperate air, and an agreeable climate; with respect to the degrees of it's purity, warmth, and salubrity, they are of course various, in proportion to the southerly or northerly exposure of the country, the proximity and distance of the sea, and the effects of cultivation. Thus the champaign tracts have a different air from that of the mountainous; and in a deep, marshy, and moist soil, it still varies from that of elevated, dry, and sandy situations. Hence fruits and grain arrive at an earlier maturity, and come to greater perfection, in some places than in others.

Germany contains many internal mountains; but the principal ridges serve as external boundaries. Bohemia is surrounded with hills; Silesia is separated by those called the *Riesengebirge*; and a still more considerable range divides Silesia and Moravia. The Austrian circle is extremely mountainous; the Upper Palatinate, Franconia, and Swabia, likewise contain many hilly tracts; and, indeed, almost every circle contains either single mountains or continuous ranges. Germany, however, in general, contains many plains of immense extent; and the eminences with which the face of the country is interspersed, serve rather to beautify the scene than to interrupt the progress of cultivation.

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In several of the mountains are remarkable caverns and natural grottos, which may be esteemed very singular curiosities. A cave near Blankenburg, in Hartz Forest, is said to be penetrable for more than twenty miles, but no termination of it has yet been discovered. A still more remarkable curiosity of this kind is to be seen near Hammelen, about thirty miles from Hanover; where, at the mouth of a cave, stands a monument to commemorate the loss of 130 children who were there swallowed up in the year 1284: however, this fact, though strongly attested, has been disputed by some able antiquaries; but probably more from a disposition to oppose prevailing opinions, and to prove their disputative faculty, than from any conviction that their arguments were just.

Germany was anciently over-run with woods; the Hercynian Forest in particular is still memorable in history; and even at this time the country in general is well supplied with every sort of useful timber; oak, beech, pine, white and red fir, lime, alder, ash, black poplar, larch, with plane-trees, chestnuts, olives, and mulberries, arrive at full vegetative perfection. The soil, however, is not improved to the full extent of culture; for which reason, in many places it is bare and sterile, but in others astonishingly fertile. Agriculture, indeed, has of late years been systematized, and great progress made in this very useful study; notwithstanding which, there is abundant room for farther exertions; and many considerable tracts, either from want of industry or knowledge in the possessors, yield but half the increase of which they are capable. However, every necessary and convenience of life may be procured on moderate terms; and, besides supplying their domestic consumption, the natives export considerable quantities of grain to other countries.

The Germans likewise cultivate hops, anise, cummin, flax, hemp, tobacco, madder, woad, saffron, and the utmost variety of pot-herbs, salads and roots. Their most valuable fruits are apples, pears, cherries, plums, chestnuts, almonds, olives, medlars, figs, peaches, apricots, oranges, lemons, citrons, grapes, nuts, filberts, walnuts, and almost every other species common to the French or Italian climates. The Rhenish and Moselle wines are celebrated over all Europe for their peculiar brightness, as well as for their detergent quality, which renders them more sovereign in some disorders than any other medicinal aid.

The domestic animals of Germany are the same as in other European countries, but perhaps more numerous than in any other. The wild beasts are chiefly deer, (of which there are seven or eight different species) boars, hares, and rabbits; and in some places bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, wild-cats, badgers, martens, chamois, and wild-goats.

Of every species of tame fowl Germany contains the greatest abundance; and among the wild inhabitants of the air common to this climate, we may enumerate swans, bustards, pheasants, woodcocks, partridges, grouse, snipes, larks, field-fares, ortolans, quails, wild-geese, ducks, the spoonbill-bird, storks, falcons, herons, and hawks.

No country can boast a greater variety of noble, large, and deep rivers, than Germany; and none are better stocked with the most excellent and delicious fish. At the head of the German rivers stands the Danube, or Donaw, which receives its name from the rapidity of its current, by some pretended to be naturally the swiftest river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade it is so exceedingly broad, that, during the numerous wars carried on between the Christians and Infidels, ships of war have frequently engaged in it; and its
convenience

conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it flows, is almost inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vast number of cataracts and whirlpools, which, emitted with the swiftness of it's stream, render it's navigation in many places dangerous and disagreeable: it's direct course, without regarding it's numerous turnings and windings, is computed at one thousand six hundred and twenty miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, the Elbe, the Oder, the Weser, the Moselle, the Spree, the Penne, the Grus, the Mein, and the Saar.

The most capital German lakes are those of Constance and Bregentz; Chiemsee, or the Lake of Bavaria; and the Zecknitzer-see in the dutchy of Carniola, the waters of which often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

But besides these lakes and rivers, which abound in fish, and yield considerable quantities of pearl, this country contains many large bodies of stagnant waters, which emit a pestilential vapour, and afflict the neighbouring nations with many deplorable disorders. By way of counterpoise, however, is certainly blessed with a variety of mineral waters and baths, the virtues of which are well known throughout Europe. The Spa waters, and those of Pymont, are often prescribed as efficacious in various diseases. Those of Aix-la-Chapelle, which are still more celebrated, are divided into the Emperor's Bath and the Little Bath; the springs of which are so intensely hot, that it is necessary to allow them twelve hours to become moderately cool. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, Wildungen, and Brakel, likewise perform wonders in almost all complaints. At the last-mentioned place the mineral springs possess a strength which renders them capable of intoxication, for which reason they are inclosed and guarded from abuse. But, after all that has been written on the subject of these and other mineral waters, and the various diseases they are said to relieve, or absolutely remove, perhaps a considerable share of their success is to be ascribed to the exercises and amusements of the company who resort to them. Indeed, it is the interest of the proprietors to provide for both; and it must be confessed, that the neatness, cleanliness, and conveniency, of these places of public resort, are strong inducements both to the idle and the indisposed to frequent them.

In the mineral kingdom, Germany possesses a full proportion of advantages. Bohemia, and many places in the Circle of Austria, and various other districts, contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Saltpetre, salt-pits, and salt-mines, abound in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony. Carbuncles, amethysts, jaspers, sapphires, agates, alabaster, several sorts of pearls, turquois stones, and the finest rubies, are found in various parts of the empire. In Bavaria, Tyrol, and Liege, are quarries of beautiful marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red-lead, alum, and bitumen, with a variety of fossils. In many places stones have been discovered which have been supposed to bear a strong resemblance to different animals, human as well as irrational; coal-pits are disseminated over almost every circle; and the terra sigillata of Metz, a peculiar kind of earth, variegated with white, yellow, and red veins, is generally deemed an universal antidote against the effects of poisons.

In their persons, the Germans are generally tall, fair, and well-made; but with respect to

to their character, temper, and manner of life, there is a manifest difference, an evident proof of their being descended from several distinct nations. However, honesty, openness, and candour, are allowed to be their leading characteristics; to which we may justly add hospitality, for which they have been celebrated from the earliest ages. Julius Cæsar observes that, in his time, their houses were open to all; that they esteemed it a piece of injustice to affront a traveller, and regarded it as a necessary act of religion to protect those who sheltered themselves under their roofs: and in these laudable qualities the modern Germans do not appear to have degenerated from the example of their ancestors.

It is absolutely impossible to calculate the population of this empire with any great degree of precision, on account of the many separate states of which it is composed, each subject to a different government and police; but if we estimate the number of inhabitants at twenty millions, they will not perhaps be exaggerated.

Both men and women are extravagantly fond of costly dresses, which are fashioned after the French and English modes. The ladies, at the most respectable courts, do not differ much in their dress from the most polite nations of Europe, only they are not so much attached to painting as the French. At some courts they make their appearance in the richest furs, which are profusely decorated with jewels in proportion to the circumstances of the wearers. However, the burghers ladies and daughters, in many of the German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic; but these peculiarities are gradually becoming obsolete. The peasantry and labourers follow no particular fashions; their employments, their circumstances, or their convenience, being their only guide in the article of dress. In Westphalia, and indeed in most other parts of Germany, the inhabitants sleep between two feather-beds, having sheets stitched between them, which by use becomes a very agreeable practice, especially in the colder months. Even the lowest ranks experience a comfortable situation, and have the means of an easy subsistence. But the most unhappy part of the community are the tenants of little needy princes; who, to support their own grandeur, fleece their dependants without mercy.

The Germans have frequently been represented as destitute of proper animation in proportion to their apparent strength; and, even in the field of battle, they have been said to shew rather a passive than an active courage. However, when commanded by able generals, they have performed prodigies of valour; and have exhibited the greatest proofs of military skill, both in their ancient wars with the Infidels, and in those which they have more recently waged with the French and other nations.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great lineaments of the mechanical part of the Germans; and their performances in various branches do honour to their ingenuity, particularly in clock and watch-making, jewellery, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and architecture. Perhaps the greatest vice of all ranks is an addiction to intemperance in eating and drinking, to which they are in some measure induced by the cheapness of their provisions and the excellence of their wines. But these practices, which degrade the human race to a level with the brutes, and are odious whenever in-

indulged to any considerable degree, seem to be rapidly falling into disuse; and though a profusion of excellent dishes, and the choicest wines, bespread the tables of the great, perhaps more liberty is allowed the guests than in some other countries where superior pretensions are made to refinement. On particular occasions, such as marriages, birth-days, and christenings, the Germans are perhaps unrivalled for their social disposition, and the frequency and splendor of their feasts.

The German nobility are generally esteemed persons of the strictest honour; but they are all ridiculously attached to titles, ancestry, and shew. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, a circumstance which greatly embarrasses the heralds and genealogists of that country: hence many founding titles having no hereditary estates to support them, their possessors are doomed to wear them as badges of splendid misery; and generally adopt the military profession, as the only line in which they can employ themselves without disgracing their rank. The pride of birth, indeed, is attended with many inconveniences, even to those who have large estates annexed to their titles; as they think the cultivation of their lands an object unworthy the attention of noblemen, though it would in many instances treble their revenues. Regarding themselves as a species of superior beings, they neglect to improve those opportunities which are put into their hands of supporting their honour with reputation; and forget that indispensable duty they owe their families and the community at large, in raising their fortunes by laudable means, and contributing to the increase of universal prosperity.

The domestic amusements of the Germans are nearly the same as in England; cards, dice, dancing, and music: In the summer season, people of fashion frequent the medicinal springs, and drink the waters; and in winter, instead of the cheerful fire-side, which enlivens our evenings, they heat their rooms with stoves. As to their field diversions, they consist in hunting the wild-boar and other animals, and in bull and bear-baiting. The inhabitants of Vienna, whose time is principally spent in luxurious ease, as soon as the Danube is frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, representing griffins, tygers, swans, scollop-shells, and other fanciful subjects. This seems to be a favourite diversion of the ladies; for in these vehicles they sit dressed in velvet lined with furs adorned with laces and jewels, with velvet caps on their heads, having the horses, flags, or other creatures by which they are drawn, ornamented with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As night is the usual time for these pleasurable excursions, and servants constantly ride before the sledges with lighted torches, the whole has a very grand appearance, and seems excellently calculated for the display of ostentation and finery, of which, as we have already observed, the Germans are remarkably fond.

High Dutch may be said to be the mother-tongue of all Germany; but it varies so much in it's dialect, that the people in one province scarcely understand those of another: however, Latin and French are spoken with facility by many of the natives; and a stranger who is acquainted with either of these languages may pass conveniently enough through the whole empire.

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In this country are six archbishoprics, which are differently represented by writers; some of whom mention Vienna as being a suffragan to the archbishopric of Slatzburg; and others, as being an archbishopric of itself, depending immediately on the Pope. The others are, the archbishopric of Mentz, which has twelve suffragans; Tiers, three; Cologne, four; Magdeburg, five; Slatzburg, nine, exclusive of Vienna; and Bremen, which has three.

To satisfy the claims of temporal princes, it has been found expedient, at different periods since the Reformation, to secularize the Bishoprics of Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Minden, Lubec, and Osnaburg; which last goes alternately to the Houses of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at present held by his Britannic majesty's second son, a young prince whose amiable qualities have raised the highest expectations in his favour.

Germany contains thirty-six universities, of which seventeen are Protestant, seventeen Catholic, and two mixed; besides an incredible number of colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also a great number of academies and societies for promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles lettres, painting, sculpture, architecture, and antiquities; among which, as the most eminent, we shall particularize the academies of sciences instituted at Vienna, Berlin, Gottingen, Erfurth, Leipzig, Duisburgh, Bremen, Gieser, and Hamburg, respectively. The academies of painting at Dresden and Nuremburgh, and the Imperial Franciscan Academy at Augsburg, are likewise much and deservedly celebrated. Of public libraries, the most famous are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weimar, and the Council Library at Leipzig.

In every species of composition, no country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany; and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the Protestant states. The productions of the press are encouraged beyond conception; books are multiplied without number; every person who pretends to literature is an author; thousands of disputations are annually published; and, indeed, no person can be a graduate in a German university who has not previously given a proof of his abilities in producing at least one public disputation.

The Germans, in almost all their literary productions, are uniformly prolix, dry, voluminous, and mechanical; ignorant of, or at least inattentive to, the valuable art of enlivening their subjects, and blending the agreeable with the useful. Some modern authors, however, ought to be mentioned as exceptions from this general rule; in particular, Klopstock, Rabner, Gellert, Kleist, Gesner, Gleim, Gattsched, and Hagadorn, are distinguished for the sublimity of their sentiments, and the mingled strength and beauty of their language.

The Germans have written copiously on the Roman and Canon laws, and reduced those dry and tedious subjects to a systematic form. The healing art has received considerable improvements from Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, and Hoffman; Ruvinus and Dillenius are celebrated in botany; Heister in anatomy and surgery; and Neumann, Zimmermann, Pott, and Margraff, have prosecuted the study of chemistry with all possible success. In
natural

natural and moral philosophy, the reputation of Leibnitz, Wolfius, Puffendorff, Thomafius, and Otto Van Guericke, is deservedly great. Germany has likewise had the honour of producing several excellent political writers, geographers and historians; and, in short, every prince, nobleman, or gentleman of this country, prosecutes some favourite study with the same assiduity as if he expected to be appointed a professor in it. But, amidst all the variety of compositions which have been ushered into the world, and received with applause, works of taste, wit, and entertainment, are extremely scarce, and have seldom been attempted with success. The German plays, novels, and romances, are in general the dullest of publications, being destitute either of spirit, pathos, taste, or arrangement. In the polite arts, however, the Germans have acquired no inconsiderable share of glory. They have produced some eminent painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. The first copper-plate engraving appeared in Germany. Albert Durer also etched in copper before the art was known to the Italians; and the art of making metzotintos was likewise discovered by Van Sichem in 1648; or, as others inform us, by Prince Rupert. Printing, if not invented in this country, at least was greatly improved in it; and it is universally allowed that the Germans first knew the art of making gunpowder and great guns serviceable in war. Handel, Bach, and Hasse, particularly the former, carried the divine science of music to the highest perfection; the first of whom will perhaps for ever remain unrivalled in the sublime of musical composition, though it is certain he had not the smallest idea of giving sound a sentimental expression.

With respect to mechanics and manufactures, the Germans at present make velvets, beautiful silks, rich silk and woollen stuffs, linen, fustian, ribbands, lace, embroidered work, and tapestry; they also print cottons in the most perfect manner, and are extremely expert in dressing leather, and in every species of dyeing. In fabricating every kind of metal into ornaments, vessels, tools, wire, and toys, no nation can equal them. Nor are they less celebrated for their performances in glass cut and polished, lacquered ware, and porcelain; in which last manufacture they exceed all the world. Augsburg is famous for its productions in silver; and Nuremburgh for an infinite variety of ingenious and elegant wares in wood, ivory, metal, stone, and glass, which are exported to every other country.

In point of commerce, Germany derives vast advantages from its situation. Lying in the centre of Europe, possessing an extensive sea-coast, and being intersected by a number of navigable rivers, it can with the utmost facility export the superfluities of its home commodities and manufactures, and receive those of foreign countries. Its native materials for commerce, besides the mines and minerals which have been already mentioned, are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cummin, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, and a variety of exquisite fruits, not inferior to the best vegetable productions of France and Italy.

The German exports to foreign countries are, corn, tobacco, horses, cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribbands, silk and cotton stuffs, toys, turnery-wares in wood, ivory, and metals, skins, wool, timber, cannon, bullets, bombs and shells, iron-plates, and stoves, tinned plates, steel-work, copper, brass, porcelain, earthen-ware, glasses, mirrors, rum, beer, tartar, zaffre, Prussian blue, and an immense

menſe variety of other inferior articles. The imports bear no proportion to the exports, ſo that the balance of trade may ſafely be concluded to be vaſtly in their favour.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French Proteſtants to take ſhelter in foreign countries, proved of the utmoſt ſervice to the German manufactures. Before that period, the manufactures of velvets, ſilks, and ſtuffs, were in the rudeſt ſtate, but they have ſince been brought to the greateſt neatneſs and perfection. However, the Germans are not ſo much addicted to commercial concerns as ſome of their neighbours; and, except the Aſiatic Company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by his preſent Pruſſian majeſty, there is not any capital commercial ſociety in the whole empire; and even this company, by means of the heavy taxes impoſed upon it, has been almoſt annihilated.

About the middle of the thirteenth century, many towns in Germany, and in other countries bordering on the German Ocean and Baltic, entered into a grand confederacy for the promotion of trade and navigation, which obtained the name of the Hanſeatic League, and the towns which were members of this union were called Hanſe Towns. This confederacy, after ſubſiſting upwards of two centuries with great commercial advantages, from various concurring reaſons which proved detrimental to trade, ceaſed in it's general cogency and effect; nevertheless, the towns of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Bremen, ſtill retain the name of Hanſe Towns, and have a league actually in force between them, under the ſanction of which they conclude treaties of commerce with foreign powers. Hamburgh, indeed, is the moſt important trading town of all Germany, being more reſorted to by the Engliſh and Dutch than any other. Frankfort on the Mayne, Leiſpic, Nuremburgh, Aufburgh, Vienna, Fiume, and Trieſte, are likewiſe principal commercial towns, enjoying in general the privilege of holding fairs, of which Frankfort on the Mayne has the greateſt.

It is proper to remark in this place, that the emperor, the electors, and a majority of the princes of the empire, ſeveral prelates, abbeſſes, counts, barons, and imperial cities, poſſeſs the privilege of coining money: but ſubject to this limitation, that ſome are entitled to coin only ſmall money; and others, pieces of a larger value, and that either of ſilver only, or of gold alſo. But this franchise, however flattering to the vanity of man, is rarely claimed by many ſtates, on account of it's attendant expences. Once or twice every year the mint-maſters viſit every circle, in order to examine the ſtate of the coin; and, by a ſtanding law of the empire, all the money is required to be of the ſame ſtandard, and of one weight and intrinsic value. The laſt public reſolution on this ſubject was paſſed at a diet in 1737, when the common ſtandard was declared to be that of Leiſpic; but neither this, nor the many other ſalutary regulations which have been adopted reſpecting coinage, have poſſeſſed ſufficient validity to prevent it's debaſement.

In Hamburgh and Lubec, accounts are kept in marks, ſhillings, and pfennings: a mark, equivalent to ſixteen ſhillings and ſixpence ſterling, makes ſixteen German ſhillings; a German ſhilling twelve pfennings, an imaginary coin, five hundred and ſeventy-fix of which, or three marks, make one rix-dollar. The current heavy money of this country is generally twenty-five per cent. better than the light current coin.

At Bremen, they reckon by rix-dollars, grots, and schwars: a rix-dollar, equivalent to four shillings and sixpence, makes one and a half double; and three single Bremen marks, seventy-two grots, or three hundred and sixty schwars. In all the electoral countries of Saxony, at Naumburg, Berlin, Magdeburg, and Frankfort on the Oder, they make their computations by rix-dollars, gut-groschens, and pfennings; that is, one rix-dollar is equal to an imperial florin and a half, or twenty-four gut-groschens; and one gut-groschen to twelve pfennings. An imperial florin contains sixteen gut-groschens; a one-third piece, eight groschens; and a one-sixth piece, four gut-groschens.

At Frankfort on the Mayne, they reckon in rix-dollars, kreutzers, and pfennings; one imperial florin, or two-third piece, makes fifteen batze; sixty kreutzers, twenty imperial groschens, or two hundred and forty pfennings.

Throughout all Silesia, accounts are kept in rix-dollars, silver groschens, and pfennings: one rix-dollar contains thirty imperial or silver groschens; forty-five white groschens, ninety kreutzers; an hundred and twenty groschens, an hundred and eighty dreyers, and three hundred and sixty pfennings.

In Westphalia, Brunswick, and many other places of Lower Saxony, reckoning is made by rix-dollars, marien-groschens, and pfennings; one rix-dollar is equivalent to twenty-four gut-groschens, thirty-six marien-groschens, or two hundred and eighty-eight pfennings.

At Cologn on the Rhine, they reckon by rix-dollars, albusen, and trellers; and also by effes and pfennings Flemish: one rix-dollar current makes an imperial florin and a half, four head-pieces and a half, forty-eight Brabant stivers, fifty-eight and a half Cleve stivers, seventy-eight albusen, and an hundred and seventeen setmanger.

The above are the principal coins, either real or imaginary, current in Germany; and it is worthy of being remarked, that the rix-dollar, which at Hamburg, Altena, Lubec, Bremen, and several other capital towns, is worth four shillings and sixpence, will circulate in most parts of Germany for no more than three shillings and sixpence.

The German empire is elective, and a solemn renunciation of every intention or attempt to render the crown hereditary in his family is required of every King of the Romans; though the House of Austria, in consequence of its superior power, has possessed this dignity for several centuries. The laws of the empire, however, make no limitation with regard to state, age, nation, or religion, the choice being always settled by a majority of the electors, and declared by the Elector of Mentz within a month after the former emperor's demise, by means of envoys and rescripts to each elector. The ceremony of election is performed at Frankfort on the Mayne, where the different electors must appear in person, or depute their plenipotentiaries. After settling preliminaries, foreigners of every rank are enjoined to quit the town previous to the day fixed for the election; when all the electors present, with the plenipotentiaries of the absentees, make a splendid procession on horseback, the three spiritual electors wearing scarlet robes, with caps lined with ermine; while the secular electors are dressed in crimson velvet trimmed with ermine, each being preceded by his hereditary marshal, carrying a sword unsheathed before him. In this manner they advance from the Council House to St. Bartholomew's Church;

Church; when, alighting at the gate, they occupy their respective seats in the choir, followed by a train of princes and counts of the empire, the sword-bearers standing before their respective electors with their swords drawn and resting on their shoulders. Divine service then commences: but till mass is over the Protestant electors are permitted to withdraw; after which they again return, and all the electors taking a solemn oath before the altar to elect the fittest person to fill the throne, they shut themselves up in the chapel of election, which is a small vaulted gallery having a communication with the choir. When they have once more pledged their oath to accede to a plurality of votes, the suffrages of the electors are collected by the Elector of Mentz, according to priority; after which the Elector of Saxony asks the Elector of Mentz for his vote. The smallest majority renders the election equally valid with the unanimous concurrence of the electors, and even the person elected may vote for himself.

This solemn ceremony being concluded, the elected, or his proxy, must immediately swear and subscribe the capitulation of election, which regulates his power; on which he receives the felicitations and congratulations of the electors, and his rank is publicly proclaimed. An authenticated copy of the *pacta conventa* of election, subscribed by the person elected or his plenipotentiary, and confirmed by his seal, is then delivered to each of the electors; while, on the other hand, the College of Electors present the elected with an instrument ratifying their choice.

Aix-la-Chappelle is the ancient seat of coronation, in which, and Nuremburgh, the jewels of the empire are deposited; but at present the coronation is always held in the town of election. The regalia principally belonged to Charlemagne; and, exclusive of various vestments, consist of a crown, a sceptre, two rings, an imperial monde, two broad swords, a small one, a book of the Gospels, and various other articles.

At the coronation, the temporal electors, or their ambassadors, attend the elected prince from his palace to the church in the following order: the Elector Palatine with the crown, the Elector of Bavaria with the monde or globe, and the Elector of Brandenburg with the sceptre, walk first abreast; the Elector of Saxony carries the sword, and the Elector of Hanover the standard. At the door of the church the prince is received by the three ecclesiastical electors in their robes, who attend him to the altar; where, having taken a general oath of just administration, and promised to regard the Church and the Pope with due veneration, the officiating archbishop anoints his head, shoulders, neck, breast, and right-arm, with holy oil; then being clothed in the ancient imperial robes, he is conducted to another altar, and renews his former vows; after which the crown is placed upon his head, and he is seated on the throne. The ceremony closes with singing the *Te Deum*; and a flourish of trumpets proclaims the general joy.

Before the reign of Charles V. the emperors used to receive their crowns at the hand of the Pope in the city of Rome, and then assumed the title of Roman Emperors; but this humiliating journey has since been discontinued: however, it is still usual for an emperor, on his elevation to the throne, to dispatch an embassy to the Pope, in token of his veneration.

The emperors of Germany have long been admitted to a tacit precedency, on all public

lie occasions, among the other sovereigns of Europe; though Austria, the house from which they have sprung for many ages, does not even entitle them to vote in the election of an emperor, being only an archdukedom: however, they have a vote attached to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, borne by the Emperor, as Archduke of Austria: but his title in general runs thus, 'By the grace of God, elected a Roman Emperor; and at all times Augmenter of the Empire of Germany.' The imperial arms are, a Black Eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings in a field, Or; and over the heads of the Eagle is seen the imperial crown. But to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family, would puzzle the most profound adept in the science of heraldry.

Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of instituting orders; but the Emperors contend that they are not admissible unless confirmed by them. The Emperors, as being descended from the House of Burgundy, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as well as the Kings of Spain. The Empress Dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late Empress Queen, Maria Teresa, instituted the order of St. Teresa.

With regard to the power of the Emperor, he is the supreme head of the electors, and in that light enjoys many valuable prerogatives; but the exercise of his authority is regulated, in his general administration, by the capitulation of election, by treaties, and by the ancient usages of the empire. Those privileges which he has a right of exercising without the concurrence of the states, are called his *reservata*; but his greatest power is far from consisting in these, they being framed in the most favourable manner, to preserve the common liberty of the different states.

As to ecclesiastical matters, the Emperor only possesses the power of confirming ecclesiastical elections, and superintending, by proper commissaries, the consecration and induction of the great dignitaries of the church.

With respect to temporal affairs, he enjoys the exclusive right of conferring personal dignities; of raising countries and territories to a higher rank; and of bestowing coats of arms, and altering them according to his pleasure. He likewise has the power of founding universities; of granting a right to hold fairs and markets; of erecting any place into an asylum; of issuing letters of respite to secure a debtor from his creditors; of conferring majority on minors; of putting illegitimate children on the same footing as those born in wedlock; of confirming the contracts and stipulations of the different members of the empire, and of remitting oaths extorted from them, so that they may commence actions at law against one another on account of the very things for which the oaths were administered. However, the imperial prerogative does not extend to the subjecting any state to the ban of the empire, the exclusion of any state from its seat and voice in its respective college, an interference with established laws, a declaration of war, a conclusion of treaties, the levying of taxes, the regulation of the coinage, the erection of forts, or the determination of religious disputes, without the consent of the collective states of the empire.

The successor in the imperial authority is frequently elected during the life of the Emperor and in that case is styled King of the Romans. His election and coronation are exactly

exactly similar to that of the emperor; and though he can only be said to have a kingdom and a crown in reversion, he is saluted with the titles of Majesty, Perpetual Augmenter of the Empire, and King of Germany. He bears a Spread Eagle with One Head in his arms, and takes precedence of all the other kings of Christendom.

The electors of the empire are nine in number, of which three are spiritual, and the rest temporal. Of the former is the Elector of Mentz, who is Arch-chancellor of the Holy Roman Empire, and Director of the Electoral College; besides possessing the privilege of being exempted from the emperor's controul, of nominating the vice-chancellor of the empire, and of appointing all the officers of the Imperial chancery.

The Elector of Treves, who holds the second ecclesiastical rank, is Arch-chancellor of the Holy Roman Empire in Gaul and the kingdom of Arles; but this at present is a mere nominal distinction: however, he has the first voice at the election of a King of the Romans, and constantly takes precedence next to the Elector of Mentz.

The third ecclesiastical elector is that of Cologne, Arch-chancellor of the Holy Roman Empire in Italy, and possessed of a second voice at the election of a King of the Romans. When the emperor is crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, he has the honour of performing the coronation alone, but exchanges with the Elector of Mentz when that ceremony neither happens in his own archbishopric nor in that of Mentz.

The temporal electors are, the King of Bohemia, the Elector of Bavaria, Saxony, Brandenburg, the Elector Palatine, and Hanover.

The electoral King of Bohemia is complimented with the rank of being Arch-cup-bearer of the Holy Roman Empire; and, as such, presents the chalice to the emperor: he precedes all other temporal electors, and in the Electoral College enjoys a third voice.

The Bavarian elector is Arch-secrer of the Holy Roman Empire; and, at the coronation, carries the monde before the emperor, and ranks next to Bohemia.

The Elector of Saxony is Arch-marshal of the Holy Roman Empire: at the diets, and on other solemn occasions, he carries the sword of state before the emperor; and at the coronation rides on a heap of oats, out of which he fills a silver measure. He likewise appoints quarters for the electors at diets; and, during the time of their sitting, has supreme jurisdiction over all the different officers of the empire.

The Elector of Brandenburg enjoys the rank of being Arch-chamberlain of the Empire, carries the sceptre before the emperor, and presents him with water in a silver basin.

The Elector Palatine holds the office of Arch-treasurer, is Hereditary Protector of the Knights of the order of St. John throughout the whole empire, and possesses the power of raising nobles and gentlemen to the dignity of counts of the empire without the Imperial sanction.

The Elector of Hanover, in consequence of the Bavarian elector's being put under the ban of the empire, obtained the office of Arch-treasurer of the Empire, a title which he still retains. This prince enjoys the alternate succession of the Bishopric of Osnaburg, with some other rights and privileges annexed. The illustrious House of Hanover was raised to the electoral dignity in 1692, by the favour of the Emperor Leopold, to whom it had

rendered the most essential services; but the electors of this family neither obtained a seat nor a voice in the Electoral College before the year 1708.

Next to the electoral rank, the princes of the empire, who are partly spiritual, and partly temporal, obtain precedence; some of them having been elevated to that dignity since the reign of Ferdinand II. The spiritual princes consist of archbishops, bishops, or princely abbots; dependent on whom are the Teutonic Masters, and the mastership of the order of St. John. Among the temporal princes are an archduke, a considerable number of dukes, palgraves, margraves, landgraves, burgraves, and counts. In the College, or Council of the Princes of the Empire, are three benches; namely, the Spiritual, Temporal, and Cross-Bench: on the first sit the spiritual princes, with the Archdukes of Austria and Burgundy; but in such a manner, that Austria daily exchanges the first place with Salzburg; on the second bench sit the temporal princes collectively; and, on the third, the Bishops of Lubec and Osnaburg, when the latter happens to be a Lutheran.

The Imperial Diet is composed of the Emperor and the States, or their plenipotentiaries, who assemble to deliberate on such affairs as concern the whole empire, on a summons from the emperor addressed to the ruling powers individually. This summons briefly specifies the occasion of their meeting, and the most important matters which are to be referred to their consideration. If the emperor does not personally attend, he deposes a principal commissary, an indulgence which is likewise granted to the respective states; but their envoys or plenipotentiaries are required, before admission, to exhibit their credentials to the Elector of Mentz, who has the general direction of the states; and likewise to the principal Imperial commissary.

In their deliberations, the States of the Empire divide into three colleges, the Electoral, the Princely, and the Imperial cities: each of the two first, which are styled the Higher Colleges of the Empire, has a principal and private chamber of its own; but all the three colleges meet to hear the Imperial proposals, and on some other occasions, in the hall of correlatives.

And here we must observe, that the ecclesiastical and secular princes of the empire, with all the prelates who have princely dignities annexed to their functions, have each a single voice; but those who have no temporal principality, give their voices by companies. The representatives of the Imperial cities form the last and third rank of members in the diet, which amount to upwards of fifty.

In the respective colleges, their resolutions are formed by a majority of voices; and if the three colleges be unanimous, a judgment of the empire is formed for the emperor's approbation: but if only two of the colleges concur in opinion, their resolution, with the particular conclusion of the third, is delivered to the Imperial commissaries. The emperor's pleasure then decides the dispute, which is equally valid whether in favour of the majority or minority.

The concurrence of the different states of the empire is generally necessary to render the imposition of taxes legal; and these are either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary taxes are what every separate state of the empire is bound to contribute annually, for maintaining the Chamber-judicatory of the emperor, and the empire; the proportion of which

which to be raised by each particular state is expressed in the *matricula* of the chamber: but these taxes are so ill paid, and in many cases so unequally imposed, that the states are generally considerably indebted to this chamber of judicature.

The extraordinary taxes are such as are granted by the states, upon any public emergency, for the support of the emperor, the payment of the Imperial army, the erection of forts, and the general expences of a national war. These taxes are likewise levied according to a certain ratio expressed in the *matricula* of the empire, but are equally ill paid as the former: nor does there appear to be a sufficient power vested in the executive part of government to compel the different states to fulfil their regular engagements.

Indeed, the utmost intricacy prevails in the German constitution; for although, in a war of the empire acceded to by a majority, every prince must contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation-roll; yet an elector, or prince, may espouse a different side from that of the diet, as has frequently happened, both with respect to the King of Great Britain as Elector of Hanover, and the King of Prussia as Elector of Brandenburg. However, during the two last wars, very little regard was paid, in carrying them on, to the ancient German constitution, the whole management being engrossed by the head of the House of Austria.

With regard to the forces which the several princes of the empire are able to pay and maintain, the following calculation has been made, which is far from being exaggerated.

The Elector of Mentz may maintain	- - - - -	6,000
The Elector of Triers	- - - - -	6,000
The Elector of Cologne	- - - - -	6,000
The Bishop of Munster	- - - - -	8,000
The Bishop of Leige	- - - - -	8,000
The Archbishop of Saltzburg	- - - - -	8,000
The Bishop of Wurtzburg	- - - - -	2,000
The Bishop of Bamberg	- - - - -	5,000
The Bishop of Paderborn	- - - - -	3,000
The Bishop of Osnaburg	- - - - -	2,500
The Abbot of Fulda	- - - - -	6,000
The other Bishops of the Empire	- - - - -	6,000
The Abbots and Provosts of the Empire	- - - - -	8,000

Total of the ecclesiastical princes - - - 74,500

The Emperor, for Hungary	- - - - -	30,000
The Emperor, for Bohemia, Silesia, and Moravia	- - - - -	30,000
The Emperor, for Austria, and other dominions	- - - - -	30,000
The King of Prussia	- - - - -	40,000
The Elector of Saxony	- - - - -	25,000

The

The Elector Palatine	- - - - -	15,000
The Elector of Hanover	- - - - -	30,000
The Elector of Bavaria	- - - - -	30,000
The Duke of Wirtemberg	- - - - -	15,000
The Landgrave of Hesse Cassel	- - - - -	15,000
The Prince of Baden	- - - - -	10,000
The Duke of Holstein	- - - - -	12,000
The Duke of Mecklenburg	- - - - -	15,000
The Princes of Anhalt	- - - - -	6,000
The Prince of Lawenburg	- - - - -	6,000
The Dukes of Saxony	- - - - -	10,000
The Princes of Nassau	- - - - -	10,000
The other princes, and Imperial towns	- - - - -	50,000
The secular princes	- - - - -	379,000
The ecclesiastical princes	- - - - -	74,500
Total military force of the empire	- - - - -	453,500

By this computation it will appear, that the emperor and empire form the most powerful European government; and if the whole force was properly directed, under an able general, Germany could have nothing to fear from the united powers of Europe. But the various connections of it's princes, and the different interests they in consequence pursue, render the power of the emperor of little importance, except with regard to the forces he can raise in his hereditary dominions, which indeed are very formidable. The Imperial Chamber, and that of Wetzlaar, more generally known by the name of the Aulic Council, are the two supreme courts for the decision of causes originating between the respective members of the empire. The Imperial Chamber is composed of fifty judges or assessors; the president and four of the bench being elected by the emperor, one by each of the electors, and the rest by the princes and Imperial cities. This supreme court, which at present is held at Wetzlaar, but which was formerly at Spire, has likewise cognizance of all causes brought by appeal from the inferior judicatories. The Aulic Council originally was only a revenue court of the dominions of the House of Austria; but as the power of that family increased, the jurisdiction of the Aulic Council was extended; and at last, to the great disgust and disapprobation of the princes of the empire, it usurped the powers of the Imperial Chamber, and even of the Diet itself. This high and arbitrary court is composed of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of Aulic counsellors, of whom six are Protestants, besides other inferior officers; however, the emperor is absolute master of the whole, and the members can only be regarded as the abject slaves of his pleasure.

These courts affect to regulate their decisions by the ancient laws of the empire, the Golden Bull, which was composed by Charles IV. with the approbation of the different states

states of the empire; the pacification of Passau; the civil law; and the Capitulatio Cæsarea; which last relates principally to the rights of the electors and the elected.

When the votes of the Imperial diet are collected, and sentence is pronounced, upon any great emergency, the emperor, by means of his prerogative, commits the execution of the decree to a particular prince or princes, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent party, who is obliged to defray all expences. But to enumerate every peculiarity of the German constitution would be a tedious as well as uninteresting labour: suffice it therefore to say, that it forms a study of no small intricacy and difficulty to the natives themselves; and that, however plausibly contrived the various checks on the Imperial power may appear, it is certain that the ambitious House of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, which have been preserved by the watchful jealousy of the court of France alone. At present the House of Brandenburg has started up as a counterpoise to the Austrian greatness; and, as far as the uncertain science of politics will permit us to decide, there seems to be no great appearance of any internal commotions among the princes of the empire; a circumstance extremely favourable to the general tranquillity of Europe, and the happiness of Great Britain in particular, whose dearest interests have several times been sacrificed to its sovereign's predilection for his electoral dominions.

But before we close our account of the German constitution, it would be unpardonable not to explain the meaning of the Pragmatic Sanction, a term which often occurs in the modern German history, and which by the generality of readers is but little understood. This, then, is no other than a provision made by the Emperor Charles VI. to preserve the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has frequently been disputed by other branches of the House of Austria, whose views have occasionally been countenanced by France, though the Pragmatic Sanction is strongly guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, the Elector of Bavaria, who was raised by French politics to the throne, together with the late King of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the daughters of the Emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. The court of Spain likewise has repeatedly opposed its effect; but hitherto all attempts to abrogate it have proved ineffectual.

The religion of Germany forms a copious article for discussion, its rise and progress having been marked with many interesting circumstances: but passing over the unauthenticated accounts of early antiquity, we shall only observe, that the natives of this country appear to have received the first lights of Christian revelation, about the close of the seventh century, from some Irish and English divines. In the eighth century, Winifred of England, preaching among the Thuringians, Hessians, and Saxons, was ordained Bishop of the Germans beyond the Rhine, by the appellation of Bonifacius. He was afterwards elevated to the dignity of Archbishop of all Germany; when, under the specious pretence of propagating the Christian doctrines, he exerted himself with the utmost zeal to promote an obedience to the papal see; and even employed the secular powers against such bishops and priests as refused to submit themselves to the Roman yoke, and adopt its ceremonies

of worship: Charlemagne, leaving argumentation and conviction to missionaries and divines, took the horrid method of propagating Christianity among the Saxons by fire and sword; and, some time after, the Bohemians and Moravians were forced into the same faith by similar means.

The Reformation in Germany began about the year 1517, and originated from the subsequent cause. The Archbishop of Mentz, being unable to advance the exorbitant sums the Pope exacted from him, procured leave of his holiness to sell his pardons and indulgences in all the great towns of Germany. As soon as this was publicly known, Dr. Martin Luther, a native of Isleben, a town in Saxony, and born in 1483, protested against the proceeding, and openly disputed at Wittemberg and Leipzig against those who maintained the power of the pope to grant indulgences, notwithstanding his being threatened with excommunication, and being actually condemned as an heretic. The Elector of Saxony in a short time became a convert to his doctrine; which event inspiring Luther with hopes of still greater success, he boldly propagated his opinions in various parts of Germany, and gained as disciples several powerful princes, and the inhabitants of the greatest number of the Imperial towns; who, in 1529, protested against the conclusion of the diet at Spire, which declared all innovations in religious matters unlawful till the decree of a future council should be obtained; and from this protest they received the name of Protestants. The first assembly of Protestant divines was held at Ausburg in 1530, when they set forth the substance of their doctrine in a certain number of articles; and from hence they obtained the name of Adherers to the Ausburg Confession. Charles V. having in vain admonished the Protestants to retract the opinions they had thus advanced, and to conform themselves to the Romish Church, at last had recourse to arms; but, after a long war, in which each party by turns was victorious, a toleration was granted at Passau in 1652, which was afterwards confirmed to them at Ausburg in 1555, during the recess of the diet of the empire. By this pacification, the adherents to the Ausburg Confession were confirmed in the full exercise of their religious liberty till a final agreement should be effected between the patrons of both religions; and, if that should never be accomplished, for ever.

To maintain inviolate this important decree of the empire, the emperors and popish powers have frequently renewed their obligations: the former in particular have always confirmed it by oath in the capitulation of election; and the various doubts which had arisen on the subject of toleration were entirely obviated in 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia. By virtue of this renewed and authenticated religious peace, the Roman, Lutheran, and Reformed persuasions, alone have the sanction of the governing powers; notwithstanding which, there are sects which adhere to neither of these three religions, who yet enjoy the free exercise of their own.

Each Protestant state may institute what regulations and alterations it pleases, within its own jurisdiction, in matters relating to the churches or schools; hence the external forms of religious worship differ much in the Protestant countries of the empire. The sovereign, however, commonly decides all important affairs, settles and confirms removes, promotes, cashier, or otherwise punishes, those who serve either in the church or schools:

schools: he also forms ecclesiastical regulations, appoints feasts and fasts, and erects colleges, which by the Imperial authority are appointed to superintend the other affairs of the church. Consistories are likewise generally formed by the Protestant states, for the regulation of church-government; in many places peculiar synods and a church-council are held; and, in short, the sovereign of the country, the consistory, or the elders of the church, have the nomination of all the ecclesiastics and school-masters within their respective jurisdictions. The power possessed by the Protestant states over their Roman Catholic subjects is the same as that which the Catholic states have over their Protestant subjects. The lord of the country, whether Protestant or Catholic, enjoys supreme jurisdiction over his subjects; but can require nothing of them contrary to the tenets they profess, and the avowed principles of their church. At present, indeed, the modes of public worship and forms of church-government are regulated rather to answer the purposes of civil policy than the advancement of religion. The Protestant princes, in particular, grant an universal toleration; and, by so doing, many have aggrandized their own power, and improved the population and manufactures of their country: however, the Protestant divines are far more respectable for their literary acquirements, and more exemplary in their deportment, than the Popish clergy.

The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are replete with uncertainty and contradiction; for which reason we shall adopt those most generally received as the best criterion of authenticity. The German empire was formerly divided into two grand parts, the Upper and the Lower; but the Emperor Maximilian, grandfather and predecessor of Charles V. divided it into ten great circles, and this mode of division was confirmed by the diet of Nuremberg in 1552. However, as the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, has been detached from the empire, we must now confine ourselves to the nine divisions at present subsisting; three of which lie in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles are—Upper Saxony,
Lower Saxony,
Westphalia.

The middle circles are—Upper Rhine,
Lower Rhine,
Franconia.

The southern circles are—Austria,
Bavaria,
Swabia.

In territories so numerous, and possessions so minute, where the dominions of a prince are sometimes of less extent than the manor of an English gentleman, to give a particular description of each would be tedious and unentertaining; suffice it, therefore, to exhibit a general view of the divisions, subdivisions, and chief towns of the respective circles, and then to particularize the most remarkable places in each.

I. CIRCLE

I. CIRCLE OF UPPER SAXONY.

DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Pomerania, N.	{ Prussian Pomerania, N. E. Swedish Pomerania, N. W.	{ Stetin. Stralsund.
Brandenburg in the middle, subject to the King of Prussia.	{ Altmarck, or Old Marck, W. Middle Marck Newmarck, E.	{ Stendel. Potsdam. Frankfort, Custring.
Saxony Proper, S. subject to it's own elector.	{ Dutchy of Saxony, N. Marquisate of Lusatia, E. Marquisate of Misnia, S.	{ Wirtenburg. Bautzen, Gorlitz. Dresden, Meissen.
Thuringia, landgrate, W.	{ }	{ Erfurt, subject to the Elector of Mentz.
The dutchies of	{ Saxe Meiningen Saxe Zeitz Saxe Altenburg, S. E. Saxe Weimar, W. Saxe Gotha, W. Saxe Eifnach, S. W. Saxe Saalfeld. }	{ Meiningen. Zerbst. Altenburg. Weimar. Gotha. Eifnach. Saalfeld: }
The counties of	{ Schwartzburg, W. Belchinger, N. Mansfield, N. }	{ Subject to their respective dukes. Sonderhavre. Belchinger. Mansfield. }
The dutchies of	{ Hall, middle, subject to Prussia. Saxe Naumberg, subject to it's own duke. }	{ Hall. Naumberg. }
The counties of	{ Stolberg, N. W. Hohenstein, W. }	{ Stolberg. Northhausen. }
Principality of Anhalt, N.		{ Dessau, Zerbst. Bernburg, Kothen: }
Zaal-creys, or county.		Hall.
Voigtland, S. subject to the Elector of Saxony. }		Plowen.
Dutchy of Mereiberg, middle; subject to the Elector of Saxony. }		Mereiberg.

II. CIRCLE OF LOWER SAXONY.

Dukedom of Holstein, N. of the Elbe.	{ Holstein Proper, N. Ditmarsh, W. Stormaria, S. Hamburgh, a sovereign state Wagerland, E: }	{ Partly subject to Denmark, and partly to Holstein Gottorp. }	{ Keil, subject to Holstein Gottorp. Meldorp } { Subject to Denmark. Gluckstadt } { Imperial cities. Hamburgh } { Lubec }
Lawenburgh dutchy, N. of the Elbe, subject to Hanover. }			Lawenburgh.

Dutchy

GERMANY.

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DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Dutchy of	{ Brunswick Proper }	{ Subject to the Duke of Brun-
	{ Wolfenbuttle. }	{ wick Wolfenbuttle. }
County of	{ Rheinftein, S. }	{ Subject to the Duke of Brun-
	{ Blackenburg. }	{ wick Wolfenbuttle. }
Dutchies of	{ Calenburg }	{ Subject to the Elector of Hano-
	{ Grubbenhagen }	{ ver, King of Great Britain. }
	{ Gottengen. }	{ }
Dutchy of Lunenburg,	{ Dutchy of Lunenburg Proper. }	{ Hanover. }
subject to Hanover.	{ Dutchy of Zell. }	{ Grubbenhagen. }
		{ Gottengen. }
Dutchy of Bremen. }	{ Subject to Hanover. }	{ Lunenburg. }
Dutchy of Verden. }		{ Zell. }
		{ Bremen, an imperial city. }
		{ Verden. }
Dutchy of Meck-	{ Dutchy of Schwerin, N. subject to it's	{ Schwerin. }
lenburg. }	{ duke. }	
	{ Dutchy of Guftrow, N. subject to it's	{ Guftrow. }
	{ duke. }	
Bifhopric of Hilde-		{ Hildesheim, an imperial
fheim in the middle,		{ city. }
subject to it's bifhop. }		
Dutchy of Magdeburg, S. E. }	{ Subject to the King of Pruffia. }	{ Magdeburg. }
Dutchy of Halberftadt, S. E. }		{ Halberftadt. }

III. CIRCLE OF WESTPHALIA.

North Division.	{ Embden county, or East Friesland ; subject to }	{ Embden. }
	{ the King of Pruffia. }	
	{ Oldenburg county }	{ Subject to the King of }
	{ Delmenhorft }	{ Denmark. }
	{ Hoya }	{ Subject to Hanover. }
Western Di-	{ Diepholt. }	{ Diepholt. }
	{ Munfter bifhopric, subject to it's bifhop. }	{ Munfter. }
	{ Paderborn bifhopric, subject to it's bifhop. }	{ Paderborn. }
	{ Osnaburg bifhopric, subject to it's bifhop. }	{ Osnaburg. }
	{ Lippe Schaumburg county, subject to Count Lippe. }	{ Buckeburg. }
	{ Lippe Detmold county, subject to it's own count. }	{ Lemgow. }
	{ Pymont county, subject to it's own count. }	{ Pymont. }
	{ Rytberg county, subject to it's own count. }	{ Rytberg. }
	{ Minden dutchy }	{ Subject to Pruffia. }
	{ Ravensburg county }	{ Ravensburg. }
	{ Westphalia dutchy, subject to the Elector of Cologne. }	{ Arensburg. }
	{ Tecklenburg county }	{ Subject to Pruffia. }
	{ Linge county. }	{ Tecklenburg. }
		{ Linge. }

T t

Cleves

DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Middle Division.	{ Cleves dutchy } { Berg dutchy } Subject to Prussia. { Juliers dutchy } { Marck county } { Liege bishoprick, subject to it's own bishop. } { Bentheim county, subject to it's own count. } { Steinfort county, subject to it's own count. }	{ Cleef. } { Dusseldorf. } { Juliers, Aix. } { Ham. } { Liege, Huy. } { Bentheim. } { Steinfort. }

IV. CIRCLE OF UPPER RHINE.

Hesse.	{ Hesse Cassel, landgravate, N. } { Hesse Marburg, landgravate, N. } Subject to { Hesse Darmstadt, landgravate } their respec- { Hesse Homberg } tive land- { Hesse Rhinefield } gravates. { Hesse Wanfield. }	{ Cassel. } { Marburg. } { Darmstadt. } { Homberg. } { Rhinefield. } { Wanfield. }
Wetteraw coun- ties, S.	{ Nassau Dellinburg } { Nassau Dietz } { Nassau Hadamar } { Nassau Kerberg } Subject to their respec- { Nassau Siegen } tive counts of the House { Nassau Idstein } of Nassau. { Nassau Weilburg } { Nassau Wisbaden } { Nassau Biellsteid } { Nassau Otweiler } { Nassau Usingen. }	{ Dillenburg. } { Dietz. } { Hadamar. } { Kerberg. } { Siegen. } { Idstein. } { Weilburg. } { Wisbaden. } { Biellsteid. } { Otweiler. } { Usingen. }
Territory of Frankfort, a } sovereign state.		{ Frankfort on the Mayne, an Impe- rial city.
County of Erpach, sub- } ject to it's own count. }		Erpach, E.
Bishopric of Spire, a so- } vereign state. }		{ Spire on the Rhine, an Imperial city.
Dutchy of Zuebruggen, } or Deuxponte, subject } to it's own duke. }		{ Deuxponte, in the Palatine.
County of Catzenel- } bogen, subject to Hesse } Cassel. }		{ Catzenelbogen, on the Lhon.

Counties

GERMANY.

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DIVISIONS.

SUBDIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Counties of	- Waldec - Solms - Hanau - Eysenberg - Soyn - Weid - Wetgenstein - Hatsfield - Wetterberg	Subject to their respective counts.	- Waldec. - Solms. - Hanau. - Eysenberg. - Soyn. - Weid. - Wetgenstein. - Hatsfield. - Wetterberg.
Abbey of Fulda, subject to it's abbot.			Fulda.
Hirschfield, subject to Hesse Cassel.			Hirschfield.

V. CIRCLE OF LOWER RHINE.

Palatine of the Rhine, subject to the Elector Palatine.			Heidelberg on the Neckar. Philippsburg, Mannheim, and Frankendahl, on the Rhine.
Archbishopricks and Electorates.	{ Cologn Mentz Triers.	Subject to their respective electors.	{ Cologn, on the Rhone. Bonn, on the Rhine. Mentz, on the Rhine. Aichaffenburg, on the Mayne. Triers, on the Moselle.
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state.			{ Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial state.
Dutchy of Simmeren, subject to it's own duke.			Simmeren.
Counties of	{ Rhinegravestein. Meurs, subject to Prussia. Veldents, subject to the Elector Palatine. Spanheim. Leymingen.		{ Rhinegravestein. Meurs. Veldents. Creutznach. Leymingen.

VI. CIRCLE OF FRANCONIA.

Bishoprics of	- Wurtzburg, W. - Bamberg, N. - Aichstadt, S.	Subject to their respective bishops.	- Wurtzburg. - Bamberg. - Aichstadt.
Marquises of	- Cullenback, N. E. - Anspach, S.	Subject to their respective margraves.	- Cullenback. - Anspach.
Principality of Henneburg, N.			Henneburg.

Dutchy

DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CHIEF TOWNS.
Dutchy of Coberg, N. subject to it's own duke.		Coberg.
Dutchy of Hilburghausen, subject to it's own duke.		Hilburghausen.
Burgravate of Nuremberg, an independent state.		Nuremberg, an Imperial city.
Territory of the Great Master of the Teutonic Order, Mergentheim, S. W.		Mergentheim.
Counties of	Reineck, W. Bareith, E. subject to it's margrave. Papenheim, S. subject to it's own count. Wertheim, W. Cassel, middle. Schwartzenburg, subject to it's own count. Holach, S. W.	Reineck. Bareith. Papenheim. Wertheim. Cassel. Schwartzenburg. Holach.

VII. CIRCLE OF AUSTRIA.

Archdutchy of Austria Proper.		Vienna, E. lon. 16. 20. N. lat. 48. 20. Lints, Ens, W.
Dutchies of	Stiria and Cilley, C. Carinthia. Carniola. Goritia.	Gratz, Cilley, S. E. Glagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E. Laubach, Trieste, S. E. Goritz, S. E.
County of Tyrol		Inspruck.
Bishoprics of	Brixen. Trent.	Brixen. Trent.

VIII. CIRCLE OF BAVARIA.

Dutchy of Bavaria Proper, on the Danube.		Munich Landshut, Ingolstadt, N. W. Donawert.
Palatine of Bavaria.	Subject to the Elector of Bavaria.	[Ratisbon] N. an imperial city.
		Amberg, [Sultzbach] N. of the Danube, subject to the Elector Palatine.
		Bishoprick

DIVISIONS.

SUBDIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

Bishoprics of	{ Freisingen } Subject to their respective bishops.	{ Freisingen.
	{ Passau. }	{ Passau, E. on the Danube.
Dutchy of Neuberg, subject to the Elector Palatine.		{ Neuberg, W. on the Danube.
Archbishopric of Saltzburg, subject to it's own archbishop.		Saltzburg, S. E. Hallen.

IX. CIRCLE OF SWABIA.

Dutchy of Wurtemberg, subject to the Duke of Wurtemberg.		Stutgard, Tubingen.
Marquissates of	{ Baden Baden } Subject to their respective margraves.	{ Baden Dourlach } { On the Rhine.
	{ Baden Dourlach. }	{ Baden Weiller. }
Bishopric of Aufburg, subject to it's own bishop.		{ Aufburg, an imperial city.
		{ Hockstet, Blenheim, on or near the Rhine.
Territory of Ulm, a sovereign state.		{ Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city.
Bishopric of Constance, subject to it's own bishop, under the House of Austria.		{ Constance, on the Lake of Constance.
Principalities of	{ Mindleheim } Subject to their respective princes.	{ Mindleheim, S. of Aufburg.
	{ Furstemburg }	{ Furstemburg, S.
	{ Hohenzollern. }	{ Hohenzollern, S.
Counties of	{ Oeting }	{ Oeting, E.
	{ Koningseck }	{ Koningseck, S. E.
	{ Hohenrichburg. }	{ Gemund, N.
Baronies of	{ Waldburg }	{ Waldburg, S. E.
	{ Limpurg. }	{ Limpurg, N.
Abbies of	{ Kempten }	{ Kempten, on the Iller.
	{ Buchaw }	{ Buchaw, S. of the Danube.
	{ Lindaw. }	{ Lindaw, on the Lake of Constance. Imperial cities.
Imperial cities, or sovereign states.		{ Nordlingen, N. of the Danube.
		{ Memmingen, E.
		{ Rotwell, on the Neckar; and others.
Subject to the House of Austria.	{ Blackforest, N. W. }	{ Rhinefield and Lauffenberg.
	{ Rhinefield county }	{ Burgaw, E.
	{ Marquissate of Burgaw }	{ Friburg and Brisac.
	{ Territory of Brisgow, on the Rhine. }	

As a description of the cities, towns, and forts, with the public and private edifices, forms a copious article with respect to almost every country, but particularly Germany, on account of its numerous independent states, let it suffice to particularize the most considerable and remarkable.

Vienna, the capital of the circle of Austria, the residence of the emperor, and the metropolis of the German empire, is situated in 48 degrees 28 minutes north latitude, and in 16 degrees 20 minutes east longitude, on a branch of the Danube which separates part of the suburbs from the city. The situation is as pleasant as can well be conceived, the country toward the north and east being an extended level; while on the south and west a range of mountains, overspread with vines, presents itself, and the Danube, which is here of great breadth, divides itself into several channels, forming a number of romantic islands delightfully covered with woods.

The city of Vienna, exclusive of its suburbs, which are very considerable, is far from being of great extent; but it is generally allowed to be a strong and well fortified place both by nature and art, having a rampart defended by eleven strong bastions and ten ravelins very broad and deep, with lined ditches and regular outworks. The number of churches and cloisters, which occupy nearly one-sixth of its whole extent, have in general considerable plots of garden or other ground adjoining to them, and enjoy an agreeable situation, though at the expence of the regularity and uniformity of the city; the streets being thereby in many places rendered narrow and incommodious, and some of the most magnificent palaces cooped up in very disadvantageous and inelegant spots.

With respect to the height of the buildings, it has been justly remarked, that the town being too small for the number of its inhabitants, the builders seem to have contrived to remedy that defect by encreasing the number of stories; hence the streets being apparently very narrow, the rooms extremely dark, and the same house often accommodating six or seven families, we in vain look for that attracting neatness which alone can give a stranger a favourable impression of the cleanliness of the inhabitants.

Vienna is divided into four quarters, the Schotten, Wubner, Stuben, and Carinthian. There are sixteen principal squares, known by different appellations; of which the Hof is the most spacious and remarkable, containing a beautiful stone fountain, and a magnificent monument of gilt metal, erected by the Emperor Ferdinand in memory of the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary.

The metropolitan church of St. Stephen, a dark Gothic structure, externally adorned with sculptures, is the most remarkable religious edifice in the whole city. The roof is covered with glazed tiles of various colours; and the principal tower is four hundred and sixty Austrian feet high, built of large blocks of free-stone clamped with iron braces, which render it one of the strongest structures of the kind in Europe. In this tower hangs a bell, the weight of which, exclusive of the clapper, amounts to seventeen tons and a half; it was cast by order of the Emperor Joseph, out of the Turkish field-pieces which he had taken in several engagements. The internal decorations of the church are, a costly high altar, a variety of relics and curiosities, and a magnificent marble monument sacred to the memory of the Emperor Ferdinand III:

There

There are four parochial churches, besides ten others served by particular ecclesiastics; sixteen cloister churches, and eighteen cloisters; among which are three colleges of Jesuits; a college of Regular Canons; of Augustines; and of St. Dorothea; a Capuchin convent; a Minorite convent; and the cloister of Bare-footed Augustines, to whom the Imperial Aulic Church belongs, in which the hearts of the high personages of the Archducal family are preserved in silver repositories; and here the Emperor Ferdinand III. erected a chapel to St. Apollonia, the patroness of the teeth, in consequence of a vow made when his son Prince Leopold cut his teeth.

The Imperial Museum contains an astonishing variety of curiosities in gold, silver, ivory, and mother-of-pearl; mathematical instruments of the most exquisite workmanship; superb pictures; antique intaglios; vases of agate, jasper, crystal, garnet, and emerald; besides jewels of inestimable value. Among the most singular curiosities, a demon, or familiar spirit, is seriously exhibited; which, having been conjured out of a demoniac, was confined in a vial; but, in fact, this is nothing more than some dark-coloured moss, having a distant resemblance of a human figure in miniature.

The Imperial Library is an elegant structure, adorned with the most masterly paintings and sculptures. With regard to the number and importance of the manuscripts and printed volumes, this may justly vie with the most celebrated libraries on earth; and, in some respects, it infinitely transcends them all. The number of manuscripts and printed books on almost every subject of human erudition, and in almost every known language, is really immense: however, the boasted antiquity of some of them is justly disputed, particularly a New Testament in Greek, in gold letters, on purple vellum, said to be written upwards of fifteen hundred years ago.

The University is a noble establishment, erected for the accommodation of the Austrian, Rhenish, Hungarian, and Saxon nations. An academy of painting, sculpture, and architecture, was instituted in 1705. The Theresian College, founded by the Empress Queen Maria Theresa, is a well-planned and flourishing institution; each member wearing a particular uniform, and paying for his board, lodging, washing, and books, eight hundred florins yearly, with an additional hundred for riding.

Among the most superb and elegant palaces of Vienna, is that of Prince Eugene, a beautiful structure, consisting of four stories, with a flat roof in the Italian taste. The apartments are fitted up with the utmost magnificence, and contain, among other splendid decorations, some paintings of inestimable value. The library makes a very handsome appearance; the number of folio volumes, beautifully bound in red Turkey gilt, amounts to upwards of fifteen thousand. Besides which, this apartment is adorned with a noble planetarium, by an English artist, on which the revolutions of the heavenly bodies are accurately represented according to the Copernican system.

The palaces of Prince Lichtenstein are also much celebrated, the most magnificent of which is situated in the Herron Street. The front is richly ornamented with columns and statues in the Italian stile of architecture; and the internal decorations consist of the most valuable pieces of painting, sculpture, and antiques. Among the productions of the pencil,

pencil, are several works of Rubens; particularly six capital pieces representing the History of Alexander the Great, the value of which has been estimated at twenty-four thousand dollars; Herodias with John the Baptist's Head, by Raphael; the Building of the Tower of Babel, executed on vellum; and the Overthrow of Pharaoh and his Army in the Red Sea, painted on marble.

But, after all, Vienna is far from being proportionably magnificent: though the houses of the great are adorned with all that is costly in furniture, hangings, painting, and sculpture; those of the lower ranks exhibit evident marks of inelegance, meanness, and uncleanness. The poverty of the inferior tradesmen, oppressed by exorbitant taxes and imposts, is conspicuous in their dress, manners, and way of living: however, the ill policy of impoverishing the manufacturing ranks seems to have struck his present Imperial Majesty with proper force; and it must be confessed, that the condition of the Austrian subjects has been greatly meliorated since his accession to the throne. Endued with sagacity, wisdom, and humility, he loses the monarch in the man; and, instead of placing dignity in that haughtiness of demeanour, which for ages had marked the conduct of his predecessors, he descends to the most minute examination of whatever may contribute to the happiness, the wealth, or the prosperity of his people.

The pride of rank, a contagion universally prevalent among the great throughout the whole German empire, is no where more remarkable than at Vienna: indeed, the height to which they carry the punctilios of honour, exposes them to the ridicule of all sober and intelligent people. Mention has been made, by a very entertaining writer, of two ladies, whose coaches met one dark night in a narrow street; and being unable to adjust the ceremonial of whose coachman should back, they both sat with equal obstinacy till two in the morning, when the emperor dispatching some of his guards, they were both taken out of their carriages exactly at the same moment, and carried home in chairs. Nor is this vain chimera of consequential superciliousness predominant only among the ladies; the other sex possess a proportionable share of the same contemptible weakness, and often sacrifice the native feelings of the heart to vain ostentation and an idle adherence to the minutiae of hereditary honour.

On the saints days whose names accord with those of the royal family, operas are exhibited at an immense expence; for the magnificence of the theatre, the splendor of the decorations, the richness of the habits, and the music of the orchestra, surpass any thing of the kind in Europe. These are denominated the gala days; and ladies of quality, whenever they wish to display the magnificence of their apartments, or oblige their friends by complimenting them on the days of their saints, give out that on such a day will be their gala. On this occasion, the several friends and relations of the lady whose saint's day is celebrated, appear full-dressed, with a profusion of jewels: the mistress of the house, however, takes no particular notice of any individual of the company, nor does she return the visit, unless on a similar occasion.

The theatrical entertainments of Vienna were formerly truly ridiculous; their plays being mere extravagant caricaturas, destitute of plot, pathos, moral, or sentiment: but some modern dramatic poets have reformed the pleasures of the stage, and produced several pieces which would do honour to any nation.

Dresden,

Dresden, the metropolis of the Elector of Saxony, and one of the finest cities in Germany, is delightfully situated on the River Elbe, in 51 degrees 12 minutes north latitude, and in 13 degrees 40 minutes east longitude from London, in the centre of a spacious plain surrounded by lofty hills generally covered with vines. The city, standing on both sides of the Elbe, is united by a stone bridge six hundred and eighty-five common paces in length, containing eighteen arches, on which are some curious statues and emblematical devices.

Dresden is adorned with several spacious squares; and also many superb edifices, six or seven stories high, which exhibit a grand appearance in general, though their effect is in some measure lost by the disproportionable narrowness of the streets. Near the entrance of the city stands a fine equestrian statue of King Augustus, erected on a lofty pedestal, and said to be executed by a common smith; a circumstance which renders it the more extraordinary, and at the same time precludes the severity of criticism.

The Museum, or Green Room, as it is called, affords the highest entertainment to every philosophic traveller. This collection of curiosities was begun by the Elector Augustus, and placed in a green-room of the royal palace, which name it still retains. The number of apartments have since been increased in proportion to the additional collections made by subsequent electors; and, for a large variety of the most masterly paintings, curious inventions in mechanics, sculptures, statues, and antiques, this museum is perhaps unrivalled in Europe. In short, no adequate idea can be formed of its curiosities without an actual inspection of them; nor is the taste with which several pieces are arranged less worthy of admiration than the collection itself.

The Electoral Palace is fitted up in the most magnificent manner: and the drawing-rooms, in particular, are well worthy of a traveller's attention, on account of twelve superb pictures contained in them; the subjects taken from Ovid, by the celebrated Lewis Sylvester.

Among the amazing quantity of plate deposited in the Plate Cabinet, are four stands, each weighing four hundred and seventy-one marks; and twelve others of little inferior value; two silver vases, each above five feet high, scarcely to be fathomed by two men; two other pieces of similar make and dimensions; and eight cisterns with the vessels standing in them, each weighing eight hundred marks, or eight thousand ounces.

The tapestry of the common assembly-room elegantly represents the battle of Hockstet. In the various apartments are many curious clocks, beautiful tables, rich cabinets, and other princely furniture; among which the confidants table is generally admired, being a curious piece of mechanism, at which the elector dines privately with his confidants, the table rising, with all its appurtenances, from the lower apartments into the upper, without the visible intervention of any one.

Besides the museum already mentioned, there is another in the palace, which contains a vast variety of collections. In the first chamber is a collection of prints from the commencement of the art of engraving to the present time. In the second, called the Mineral Gallery, are earths of all the different countries of the world, and ores of every denomination. In the third, are a vast variety of petrefactions, particularly of wood,

animals, &c. In the fourth, are different kinds of wood and vegetables, comprizing almost every species in the known world. In the fifth, is a small cabinet of skeletons, and other anatomical preparations. The sixth contains the skins of various animals stuffed; the seventh, the skins of fishes in a similar form; the eighth, a large collection of shells; the ninth, a vast variety of natural curiosities in amber; the tenth, a grotto with springs of water; the eleventh, curiosities in coral; the twelfth, skeletons of lions, bears, and the stuffed skins of some extraordinary beasts, particularly a horse whose mane is said to be three ells and a half long, and his tail twelve ells and a half.

The Picture Gallery is unrivalled in the universe: the whole collection consists of above two thousand pieces, valued at near three millions of crowns; among which are many capital original paintings of Raphael, Correggio, Rubens, and other eminent masters.

But while we pay a just compliment to the beauty of the elector's palace, we cannot help remarking, that the gardens, though laid out in the most superb state, are destitute of those natural beauties which arise from a varied surface. The whole are level, and void of effect; but the profusion of ornaments in some respects supply the defects of nature.

The Chinese Palace, so called from the taste in which it is built, commands a delightful prospect; and its apartments are superbly decorated with the figures of men and animals of almost every species, all of porcelain manufactured at Meissen.

Among the most elegant private structures in Dresden, that of Count Bruhl deserves particular attention; though the plan on which it is built is destitute of those beauties which result from regularity, having been raised at different periods. The apartments, however, are furnished with princely magnificence, and have a most splendid appearance. This nobleman's library is two hundred and twenty feet long, and well stocked. But the most striking apartment is the Gallery of Pictures; which, though infinitely inferior to the Royal Gallery in size, is incomparably more magnificent. The room is one hundred and fifty-six ells long; and the paintings are displayed to the utmost advantage by being all ranged on one side, and fronted by lofty windows which seem to disclose their minutest beauties. The pannels between the windows are of looking-glass, against which statues and busts are placed with a brilliant effect.

The other remarkable buildings in Dresden are the Opera House, the Assembly House, the Royal Stables, the Arsenal, the Electoral Chancery, the Academy for Painting, and several magnificent palaces and public structures.

The principal religious edifices are, the Church of the Holy Cross; St. Mary's; St. Sophia's; the Garrison Church; and the Roman Catholic Chapel, a curious piece of architecture.

In this city and its vicinity many ingenious and elegant manufactures are carried on. The trade of Dresden, however, is by no means very considerable; the most important article is the silver brought hither in ingots every fifteen days from the mines near Friedberg, to the amount of twenty thousand dollars, or three thousand five hundred pounds sterling.

One of the greatest curiosities in the neighbourhood of Dresden, is the Great Tun erected at Fort Konigstein by General Kyaw, the height of which is seventeen Dresden ells, and it's diameter at the bung twelve ells. This vast vessel, which is always replenished with excellent wine, is capable of containing three thousand seven hundred and nine hogheads; and on it's head is a plate with a Latin inscription to the following purport—

‘ Welcome traveller, and admire this monument, dedicated to Festivity, in order to exhilarate the mind with a chearful glass, in the year 1725, by Frederick Augustus King of Poland and Elector of Saxony, the Father of his country, the Titus of his age, the delight of mankind. Therefore drink to the health of the sovereign, the country, the electoral family, and Baron Kyaw, governor of Konigstein; and, if thou art able, according to the dignity of this cask, the most capacious of all casks, drink to the prosperity of the whole universe. And so farewell.’

Not far from Dresden stands Meissen, where the celebrated manufactory of porcelain is carried on. This town is likewise situated on the Elbe, and is partly built on eminences, and partly in a valley. In the centre of the ancient citadel, which is in most parts very ruinous, the beautiful Misnian china is made: the process of which is kept the most profound secret, no person being admitted to view the works without an order from the governor of Dresden; nor are the workmen ever suffered to go without the gates, being liable to an arrest if they are even detected beyond the bounds prescribed. These manufacturing prisoners amount to about seven hundred, whose wages in general are about ten German crowns a month: so that the annual expence of their labour does not exceed eighty thousand crowns; whereas the quantity of porcelain usually sold produces to government, on whose account solely it is manufactured, nearly two hundred thousand crowns.

Leipfic, the capital of a circle bearing the same name, and one of the finest and most celebrated towns in Germany, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Bleisse, in 51 degrees 22 minutes north latitude, and in 12 degrees 34 minutes east longitude; forty-six miles north-west of Dresden. In the city and it's vicinity grow a great number of beautiful lime and mulberry trees, which add to the natural beauty of the place. The houses in general are lofty and elegant, the streets clean, commodious and airy; and the walls, though not much calculated for defence, afford a delightful walk for the inhabitants.

Leipfic has been for many ages renowned for it's civil and religious liberty; hence the arts and sciences have flourished in this city, and the inhabitants have made considerable progress in the cultivation of useful knowledge and moral improvements. The University is still a celebrated institution; and it's library, which is open twice every week for public inspection, contains an amazing collection of books, and several cabinets of curiosities. The churches, Exchange, and several other structures, are much admired for their elegant simplicity; but the principal beauty of the city consists in it's agreeable gardens, walks, and plantations, which are dispersed over it's different quarters and the vicinity. All sorts of manufactures are carried on in Leipfic; silk, wool, and linen yarn,

yarn, being fabricated into all kinds of stuffs, velvets, stockings, cloths, and linens. The inhabitants are likewise much celebrated for dyeing silks, printing cottons, working in tapestry, and painted cloths made in imitation of tapestry.

This city has three great annual fairs, which are much resorted to by the Poles, Hungarians, Bohemians, Prussians, English, French, Italians, and even Russians; who all bring the produce of their respective countries for sale, which from thence are dispersed, by means of navigable rivers, to the remotest parts of the empire.

Hamburg, the ancient capital of Holstein Gottorp, and now a free imperial city, is situated on the north of the Elbe, which forms a commodious harbour at this place, in 53 degrees 16 minutes north latitude, and in 10 degrees 38 minutes east longitude from London. It's site is partly insular and partly continental, and possesses a territory extending twelve miles round, in which are included many large villages and beautiful seats. The streets of Hamburg are in general spacious and handsome; though there are a number of lanes and inelegant alleys which destroy the symmetry of their appearance. The houses are principally built of brick, several stories high, and in some streets have a magnificent effect. The situation renders this place naturally strong; but the efforts of art have made it almost impregnable. It's form is nearly circular, the circumference being between five and six miles. The walls and other fortifications which are exposed to view, are lined with rows of very tall trees, which in some parts intercept the prospect of the houses. The gates are six in number; and the rampart is defended by twenty-three bulwarks, besides regular outworks, and a deep foss. A noble line of external fortifications runs from the largest basin of the Alster to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town; and on the other side of the basin below the town, is the Star-fort, a place of such immense strength, that the King of Denmark, with a numerous army, in vain besieged it in 1686.

The collective buildings of Hamburg are computed to amount to thirty thousand, and it is furnished with six spacious market places. The religious structures, which are ancient, large, and beautiful, are used as thoroughfares during the day time, and in some of them booksellers keep their shops. Several churches are adorned with lofty and beautiful spires: the steeple of St. Catharine's is formed of lanterns diminishing gradually to the lowest, which supports a spire of prodigious height; and round the middle of the whole is a gilt crown of curious workmanship. The organ of the church contains six thousand pipes, and is reputed the best toned of any in Europe. The spire of the cathedral, with it's supporting towers, is three hundred and sixty feet high. It's emoluments are secularized; yet it maintains a dean and chapter, who, with the cathedral and the adjoining premises, are under the protection of his Britannic Majesty, as Duke of Bremen.

Hamburg is adorned with a well-endowed university, furnished with six professors. The Senate-house, Town-hall, and Exchange, are noble buildings. The British resident and company have a handsome hall; and, indeed, almost all the foreign envoys have commodious habitations. This city is deservedly celebrated for it's humanity to the poor; an hospital for orphans has a revenue of near sixty thousand pounds a year. Nor are the sick, the maimed, the aged, and the unfortunate, even of other countries, neglected; but, besides

besides hospitals for the wretched of every description, workhouses are erected for the employment of such as are either unable or unwilling to procure the means of subsistence by their own private industry.

Hamburgh being situated on a fine navigable river, and furnished with an excellent harbour, enjoys every possible convenience for foreign and domestic trade, and may unquestionably be ranked among the most opulent and commercial cities in the world.

The principal merchandize exported from Hamburgh to Great Britain, consists of linen; linen-yarn; tin-plates; brass, steel, and iron wire; corn; pipe-staves; and almost every species of timber. The chief articles of importation are the woollen manufactures of England, the value of which, from the port of Hull only, is computed at above an hundred thousand pounds annually; with English stockings, and other manufactures, to a considerable amount. The English merchants make a very respectable figure in Hamburgh; they form a body political and commercial, enjoy several valuable privileges, and are indulged with a church and a minister of their own.

Upwards of two hundred British vessels annually enter this port, and a proportionable number from the other commercial nations of Europe. This city likewise carries on an extensive whale-fishery in the Greenland seas; and, in time of war, fits out armed vessels for the protection of its own trade: however, it always maintains a garrison of two thousand men; and, upon an emergency, could easily raise fifteen thousand capable of bearing arms.

The government of Hamburgh is vested in the senate and three colleges of burghers, being a mixture of the aristocratical and democratical: the principal persons of the republic are vested with almost every act of sovereignty; while the regulation of finance is solely entrusted to the burghers. The inhabitants are only subject to the general laws of the Germanic Body; and, being entirely governed by their own magistrates, have neither seats nor voices in the general diet of the empire: however, they pay an annual acknowledgment of 80,000 crowns to the Emperor for his protection.

Criminals cannot receive sentence of condemnation unless they plead guilty; for which reason there are five sorts of torture used to extort a confession, and these are applied one after another, in proportion to the strength of the evidence in support of the allegations. The judges possess a discretionary power of inflicting the degrees of torture; and, on such occasions, they are surrounded by curtains, that they may not be eye-witnesses of the cruelty inflicted on the culprits.

Objects of compassion seldom present themselves in the streets; a circumstance that reflects no small degree of credit on the excellence of the police, and the munificent provision made for the poor and afflicted. Even the lowest artificer has sufficient encouragement to excel; for, on executing any curious piece of work of approved merit, he is immediately admitted to the freedom of his company, without servitude, or any expence.

The general characteristics of the Hamburghers are, complaisance, ceremoniousness, and frugality in their domestic arrangements; but on public occasions they are liberal even to ostentation. Almost every merchant of eminence keeps his own coach; besides which,

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hackney-

hackney-coaches are very numerous, a circumstance attended with many inconveniences in the more narrow and crooked streets. The common carts are only a long pulley affixed to a sort of truckle laid upon an axle between two wheels, drawn by men only, who are linked to these machines with flings across their shoulders. Among other peculiarities of the place, each lady is generally attended to church by a maid-servant, with a bible suspended by a silver chain from one arm; and, in severe weather, with a brass stove borne on the other. Both strangers and natives of the best fashion pass their social hours of enjoyment in a curious kind of tavern kept in a cellar, the management of which is vested in a deputy appointed by a select number of the magistracy.

Within cannon-shot of Hamburg stands the beautiful town of Altena, in a charming country on the banks of the Elbe; containing about three thousand houses exclusive of public structures, and upwards of thirty thousand inhabitants. This town carries on a variety of manufactures; and, from its advantageous situation on the Elbe, its trade is very considerable, being the mart where all imports of the Danish East India Company are exposed to sale.

Altena is remarkable for the calamities it has undergone. In 1712, Count Steinbock, the Swedish general, having defeated his Danish Majesty, appeared before it; and, having sent a message to the inhabitants, advising them to retire with such of their effects as they could carry off, the magistracy met him in a body, implored his favour, and offered 50,000 rix-dollars as a ransom for their town. Steinbock, who knew he had only to prescribe, insisted on 200,000; which enormous sum they promised to advance, requesting only time to procure the money from Hamburg: but, flushed with success, this barbarous general would admit of no delay; the miserable inhabitants were instantly compelled to quit their native city; and, long before all the aged and infants could be removed, the Swedes entered with lighted matches, and set every quarter of it on fire. To increase the horrors of the distressed inhabitants of Altena, the plague raged at that very time in all the neighbouring country; and the Hamburgers being obliged, for their own preservation, to shut the gates of their city against their distressed neighbours, many of them perished through want, cold, and disease. However, the King of Denmark, their sovereign, relieved them as far as possible; and generously supplied them with materials for rebuilding their town, which is now more superb and elegant than ever, having been adorned with several additional churches, a royal seminary, and some other useful institutions.

Lubec, the chief of the Hanseatic Confederacy, a spacious, opulent, and imperial city, stands at the confluence of several rivers with the Trave, upon which it has a harbour; being fifteen miles south-west of the Baltic, and thirty-eight from Hamburg, in 54 degrees 31 minutes north latitude, and in 10 degrees 42 minutes east longitude.

The city is encompassed with walls, towers, moats, and ramparts; which being lined with trees, form a most delightful walk, and have a very agreeable appearance. The houses are all built with stone, but are chiefly in the ancient style of architecture: the streets are pretty straight and extensive; but, owing to the acclivity of the situation, are for the most part steep. The churches, which amount to twenty, exclusive of the cathedral, are

are beautiful and magnificent structures, adorned with stately towers and spires of the most curious architecture. The administration of the city is vested in four burgo-masters, and sixteen counsellors, who may be either men of letters, patricians, or tradesmen. The burghers, consisting of twelve companies, have each a vote in the public deliberations. An alliance still subsists between this city, Hamburgh, and Bremen, under the ancient appellation of the Hanse Towns, in which character they negotiate treaties of commerce with foreign states.

The imperial city of Bremen is situated on the River Weser, which divides it into the New and Old Towns, united by a spacious bridge. On an actual survey made some years ago, the collective number of houses appeared to be near five thousand, exclusive of the suburbs, and that of the householders upwards of ten thousand.

The division called the Old Town is considerably the largest and most populous, being divided into four parishes, according to the four capital Calvinistical churches, viz. that of Our Lady, St. Ansgarius, St. Stephen, and St. Martin. The cathedral which stands in this quarter is a venerable pile; and under it's choir is the famous leaden cellar, remarkable for the undecayed bodies therein deposited.

The New Town consists chiefly of gardens and pleasure-houses belonging to the principal inhabitants of the Old Town; it's streets being beautifully planted with rows of limes and wild chefnuts. St. Paul's Church, which is the most magnificent structure in this quarter, belongs to the Calvinists, of whom the corporation, consisting of four burgo-masters and twenty-four counsellors, is likewise composed. The merchants and tradesmen have their elders, but are excluded from any share in the government. The trade of Bremen is very considerable, and it's inhabitants carry on several extensive manufactures.

The city of Hanover, the capital of his Britannic Majesty's German dominions, and the electoral residence before their elevation to the British crown, is pleasantly situated on an eminence upon the Leina, an insignificant stream, in 52 degrees 29 minutes north latitude, and in 9 degrees 45 minutes east longitude from London. The city is surrounded with walls and regular fortifications, and the ravelins before the gates are well provided with cannon; but as nature does not seem to contribute much to it's strength, the place would scarcely be long tenable against a resolute enemy. The houses are chiefly constructed of timber and clay, though a considerable number are handsomely finished with stone and brick; the whole number amounting to near twelve hundred, arranged in wide and airy streets, and in winter are properly lighted.

The Electoral Palace, which is situated on the banks of the Leina, was in a great measure consumed by fire in 1741, but has since been rebuilt with superior magnificence. It consists of several courts; and the apartments are grand and commodious, being chiefly hung with costly tapestry. In this edifice the privy-council and commissioners of war hold their meetings. The opera-house likewise, and the theatre for the French comedians, are both within the precincts of the palace; and, though fitted up in the ancient stile, are commodious, rich, and elegant. A mounted guard always keeps centry, an open table is constantly

stantly maintained, and the administration is uniformly conducted with dignity and propriety. During the winter, a play is represented, and a concert performed twice in every week at the royal expence, to which all the courtiers, without exception, have free access. The Palace-church is a very splendid structure, and contains treasure of immense value, consisting of gold and silver plate, gems, and relics, collected by Duke Henry, surnamed the Lion, in his journey to the East in 1171, and the succeeding years.

The New Town, which stands on the other bank of the Leina, communicates with that already described by means of several commodious bridges. This quarter is likewise fortified; and, though of small extent, is extremely populous, and makes an elegant appearance. This is the seat of the electoral consistory, and of the general and special superintendency. In this division are likewise several stately churches; and on the Parade is a large stone edifice, containing the electoral archives and library; the latter of which is one of the most curious and splendid in all Germany.

Munich (in Latin *Monachium*) is a well-fortified city on the River Isar, in 48 degrees 22 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees 41 minutes east longitude. This is the residence of the Elector of Bavaria; and the palace and other royal buildings, together with the churches, monasteries, and other religious structures, occupy near half the extent of the whole city.

The Electoral Palace is an elegant structure, consisting of four courts; the finest of which obtain the names of the Prince's and Emperor's Courts; the former being adorned with brass statues, and the latter with a broad and beautiful flight of red marble steps, which lead to the Emperor's Hall, a superb apartment an hundred and eighteen feet long, and fifty-two in breadth.

In the Chamber of Antiquities are two hundred marble statues and busts of Roman emperors; with five hundred curious antiques, consisting of lamps, inscriptions, basso-relievos, &c. chiefly brought from Italy.

Among the many inestimable curiosities in the Treasury, are a cabinet of many large pieces worked in crystal, one of which is a ship some spans long, with a pilot; and all the tackling, of the purest gold; a hill with a castle upon it, all of oriental pearl; St. George on horseback, of red agate, with his armour of diamonds set in gold; the Bavarian family, each person cut out of a piece of blue chalcedony; a double brilliant diamond, of the size of a common nutmeg; a larger of the same kind, which cost an hundred thousand guilders; a set of buttons and loops of diamonds interspersed with rubies; a set of diamonds of extraordinary beauty, collected with incredible expence by the late elector; an ivory closet adorned with relieve figures of curious workmanship, in which are preserved eleven hundred and forty-four Roman medals of gold; besides many other valuable and beautiful articles, too numerous to specify.

In 1729, the Palace, and particularly the Chamber of Curiosities, suffered greatly by fire; and in 1750 it suffered still more considerably by a similar disaster. To the eastward of the palace stands the Arsenal; and to the northward lie the Electoral Park and Pleasure-gardens.

To

To the west of the palace stands a beautiful edifice belonging to the master of the horse, having four grand fronts corresponding to four streets, and universally allowed to be a considerable ornament to the whole city. Near this structure is another electoral palace, built by Duke William; which, however, is not remarkable either for its elegance or magnificence.

The Collegiate Church, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, is a most superb building, adorned with a stately monument of black marble, sacred to the memory of Lewis IV. of Bavaria, supporting six large and several smaller figures of brass. This church is a great architectural curiosity, the pillars being so contrived as to intercept the view of all the windows, when observed from a particular spot near the entrance of the great door.

St. Peter's Church is likewise a celebrated structure. Nor must we omit to particularize the Jesuits College, in which is a valuable library. The convent and church belonging to this religious order are much admired: the last, in particular, is spacious, light, and lofty; and, among other relics of superstition, contains a single joint of a back-bone as large as an elephant's, which is pretended to be part of the vertebræ of St. Christopher's back.

The Roman Catholic religion, with all its bigotry and unchristian zeal, is universally prevalent in Munich, all persons of other persuasions being regarded rather as monsters than men. Hence the human mind being cramped in all its faculties, and scientific improvements regarded as heretical innovations, we neither meet with men eminent for literary acquisitions nor mechanical skill: trade and manufactures are very circumscribed; and the whole country, as well as the capital, feels the effects of religious intolerance.

Saltzburg, (in Latin *Salisburgum*) the capital of an archbishopric, and the residence of the archbishop, is situated in 47 degrees 45 minutes north latitude, and in 13 degrees 5 minutes east longitude, about seventy miles south-east of Munich; it is surrounded on three sides by mountains, but on the other opens to a spacious plain, through the midst of which the Salza devolves its stream. This city is computed to be about five thousand geometrical paces in circumference, and is extremely well fortified; the quarter adjoining on the right of the river being surrounded with eight bastions, and that on the left with three; besides the additional defence of the Mountain-castle, a fortification of almost impregnable strength, in which is the grand arsenal.

Saltzburg is unquestionably an elegant city: the houses are generally five stories high; but the streets, being narrow, and paved in the ancient taste, are thereby rendered disagreeable and inconvenient.

The Archiepiscopal Palace is a superb structure, containing an hundred and seventy-three rooms, some of which are fitted up in a stile of extreme grandeur; particularly the archbishop's apartment, the ascent to which is by a broad flight of marble steps. The whole palace abounds with masterly paintings, tables of inlaid marble, and superb stones of various colours ornamented with statues. The new apartments, though not constructed according to the exact rules of symmetry, are no inconsiderable ornament and convenience, the archiepiscopal offices being principally contained in them. Fronting this part of the palace is a

noble fountain, esteemed the largest and finest of all Germany, the figures represented on it being all of white marble in the grotesque stile. The reservoir is an hundred and seven feet in circumference, exclusive of the steps; and four large horses spout the water from their mouths and nostrils, though in smaller quantities than the superior statues, the highest of which is near fifty feet from the ground.

The cathedral dedicated to St. Rupert is a stately structure built in the form of a cross, having a noble front ornamented with four marble statues of St. Peter, St. Paul, St. Rupert, and St. Vergilius. The internal decorations consist of beautiful Corinthian pilasters; and a high altar of marble, which, on grand festivals, supports a sun of gold set with precious stones to the value of a hundred thousand crowns, with a large golden cross and four superb candlesticks of the same precious metal. All the other altars are composed of beautiful marble of various species, four being placed under the cupola with a handsome organ over each. But the most capital organ stands over the principal entrance, consisting of three thousand two hundred and sixty-six pipes, the longest of which is thirty-three feet; and to this grand instrument belong four keys and forty-two registers, of which seventeen move by clock-work.

The New University Church of the Immaculate Conception of the Blessed Virgin is a superb pile, internally ornamented with beautiful stucco-work. But one of the most delightful structures in the whole city is the archiepiscopal palace of Mirabella, whose fine chapel constitutes the middle part of the principal front; facing which stands a Mount Parnassus, with a Pegasus on the top, from which the water falls in agreeable cascades. In this palace is a grand marble stair-case finely painted; the floors are in general inlaid with red and white marble, most elegantly disposed; and the hangings are chiefly red embroidered with gold and silver. The gardens lying on the banks of the Salza are romantic and beautiful, containing a large aviary, and a rural theatre of verdant turf, with some celebrated pieces of elegant sculpture.

At a short distance from this palace stands Hellbrun, another seat belonging to the archbishop; which is principally remarkable for the statue of a monster elevated on a pedestal, charged with the following inscription: 'The original of this monstrous figure, called the Forest Devil, was caught in hunting near Havensburg, Matthew Lang being then cardinal and archbishop. His skin was yellowish; he bore all the marks of savage ferocity; yet never looked at any one, but sought the covert of obscurity. He had the face of a man with a beard, eagle's feet with lion's claws, the tail of a dog, and on his head grew a large comb like that of a cock. He soon died of hunger, as neither allurements nor violence could induce him to eat or drink.'

Nuremburg, a large and beautiful imperial city, situated on the River Pegnitz, in 49 degrees 41 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees 12 minutes east longitude, is the capital of a republic of the same name; which, besides four other towns, contains under its jurisdiction five hundred villages. This city contains sixteen churches; forty-four religious houses; three hundred and sixty-five towers; an hundred and twenty-eight capital streets; an hundred and forty-five fountains; and upwards of twenty thousand houses, said to be inhabited by eighty thousand families.

The

The houses are principally built of stone, lofty, spacious, and elegant, being externally adorned with pictures; and the streets are broad, clean, and well paved, but not straight. In the Hospital Church are preserved the imperial ornaments; among which is the diadem of Charlemagne, termed the *Insula*, made of pure gold, weighing fourteen pounds, and enriched with diamonds. The sceptre and globe are likewise of gold, and the sword of state is pretended to have been brought from Heaven. The robe of Charlemagne, with which every new emperor is invested, is of a violet colour, adorned with pearls, and profusely covered with golden eagles and precious stones. The cloak, cope, stole, and breeches, are also adorned with jewels; and the stockings and buskins are covered with plates of pure gold.

Among other curiosities exhibited in the same place, is the iron head of St. Longinus's lance; and as the inhabitants are conscious the same relic is pretended to be shewn in more than ten other different collections, they strenuously maintain the spuriousness of them all; and, in confirmation of the originality of their own, produce the bulls of five successive popes.

The Arsenal is one of the most compleat of any in Germany, having two large halls, each two hundred and fifty paces long, filled with an amazing quantity of arms and cannon; but the greatest part of them being of extravagant dimensions or antiquated constructions, they are more calculated for shew than utility.

The Public Library is kept in a cloister formerly belonging to the Dominicans: and is said to contain twenty thousand volumes; and a variety of ancient manuscripts, the most valuable of which is a copy of the Gospels, with the prayers and hymns used in the Greek church, upwards of nine hundred years old.

The Town House is a most superb edifice of hewn-stone, having a noble front in a regular stile of architecture, adorned with a grand portal in the centre, and a number of beautiful statues. In one of the apartments, deputies from the Circle of Franconia assemble every day to deliberate on provincial affairs. Over the door of this chamber hangs a picture representing the three brothers, John George, Frederick, and John Christian, who so zealously supported Luther in bringing about the Reformation. In the other princely apartments of this grand structure are a great number of capital paintings by the most celebrated artists; particularly some by the pencil of Albert Durer, which are reckoned almost inestimable.

The whole city of Nuremburg is divided into eight quarters, which are again subdivided into an hundred and thirty-one captainships. The principal beauties of the place are the noble fountains, which are spread over different parts. One of these beneficial ornaments consists of a large oval basin inclosed within a fine iron balustrade, having a rock in the centre, on the summit of which four large dolphins spout water, and support a large shell, out of which rises a Triton, jetting a plentiful stream into the air through his marine trumpet; and from the bottom of the basin rise four smaller water-spouts, which discharge this element into the Triton's shell, through the hollow slopings of which it again returns into the basin.

Among

Among the various bridges erected across the River Pegnitz, is one of a single arch, fifty paces long: at one extremity of which is a large flesh-market built of hewn-stone, having its gate adorned with the statue of a vast ox in a decumbent posture, with gilt horns and hoofs; under which is a Latin couplet, in letters of gold, to the following purport: 'Every thing has its beginning and increase; but the ox you see here never was a calf.'

The New Bridge, however, is by far the most beautiful structure, which cost the city an immense sum: it is adorned with two pyramids, on the apex of one of which is the Imperial Black Eagle; and on the other a Dove with an olive branch in its beak, with a Latin inscription to this effect: 'In passing over this bridge, dedicated to Charles, pray that his imperial race may flourish while the waters flow under it.'

It is impossible to particularize all the noble museums belonging to private persons in this city, which are well worthy the attention of every philosophic traveller. The Anatomical Theatre, erected at the expence of the city, contains an infinite variety of skeletons of different animals, particularly of the feathered tribes.

Nuremburg may justly boast of more numerous and skilful artisans than almost any city in Europe; indeed, nothing can exceed their curious performances in wood, ivory, and alabaster; and, with regard to toys, it might be supposed there was a sufficient quantity manufactured to supply every nation throughout the whole world. But, however ingenious the artificers are, their trade seems much on the decline; a proof that, when utility does not form the basis of manufacture, its demand can never be of long duration.

The Calvinistical inhabitants are but few in number; however, they are indulged with a pastor of their own persuasion, who performs divine service in a house without the precincts of the city. The Papists are allowed the public exercise of their religion in the Teutonic House; but the Jews are restricted to a village near the city, and are forbade even the liberty of entering it without paying a small piece of money for their admittance.

The origin of the nobility in this city is as ancient as the year 1198, when the Emperor Henry VI. assisting at a tournament, raised thirty-eight burghers families to the degree of nobles. The council of Nuremburg consists of thirty-four noble and eight handicraft counsellors; the former of which are divided into twenty-six burgo-masters and eight ancient senators. These twenty-six burgo-masters are again divided into thirteen old, and as many young ones; and every four weeks one of each presides. From the thirteen old burgo-masters are chosen the seven first counsellors, stiled the Septemvirate, who manage the most important affairs, assisted by the six next in seniority, who compose the Council of Appeal. Of the former, the three first are called the Supreme Head-people, and are always imperial counsellors; the first of which is also imperial bailiff and castellan, his usual place of residence being the imperial fort. The eight counsellors chosen from among the tradesmen attend the council only at stated times.

Different courts are erected for the distribution of justice, the recovery of debts, the regulation of finance, and the redress of grievances; and no city has a more excellent police, for preventing the commission of crimes, and securing the peace, happiness, and prosperity of the inhabitants.

The military force consists of seven companies of foot, each of which, in time of peace, consists

consists of an hundred men ; but in time of war that number is generally doubled. Besides these, which are called regular troops, the burghers form themselves into twenty-four companies, of about three hundred and fifty men each, who are all well disciplined, and capable of going through the several evolutions and the manual exercise with great regularity and activity.

Mentz, (in Latin *Moguntiacum*) the capital of an electorate, and a city of considerable extent and population, stands at the confluence of the Rhine and Maine, in 49 degrees 16 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 16 minutes east longitude from London. The houses are in general in the ancient taste ; the streets narrow and unpleasant ; and the fortifications, though begun in a very grand stile about the year 1735, have never been entirely compleated.

The Archiepiscopal Palace is built of a species of red marble, in a very magnificent manner, adorned with the most beautiful apartments, rich ciellings, and princely furniture. The cieling of the hall in which the Elector dines, contains, in different compartments, the history of St. Martin, the patron of the city ; and the tapestry-hangings represent the story of Æneas and Dido. At the extremity of this apartment is a large and sumptuous cabinet of looking-glasses, placed in little gilt squares ; the bases being adorned with several beautiful landscapes, which are amazingly multiplied by the reflection of these mirrors. From hence there is an enchanting prospect of the Rhine, the Maine, and the delightful adjacent country.

The Cathedral is a stupendous pile of red marble ; on entering which, immediately appear the sepulchral monuments of six ancient archbishops of Mentz, whose statues recline against the pillars, which support the vaulted roof. On the opposite side stand the mausoleums of the two last Electors, esteemed in this country finished pieces of sculpture, but which, if tried in the scale of critical proportion and exactitude, will not be found to contain any thing very remarkable. However, the statue of a Count of Lamberg, who was killed at the siege of Mentz in 1689, is singular in many respects. The count is represented in white marble, covered with armour, in the attitude of one using his utmost efforts to escape out of his coffin, the lid of which he pushes up with one hand, while he supports himself with the other against the bottom ; he wears a full-bottomed peruke, in perfect buckle : and, in short, the whole seems rather applicable to a triumphant than an inhumated general. The treasure deposited in this place is well worth notice, consisting of a grand collection of jewels, rich vestments, and other ecclesiastical ornaments, particularly an ostensorium, valued at twenty-five thousand dollars.

The religious foundations in this city are pretty numerous, but contain few peculiarities from similar institutions. The church belonging to the Augustine nuns of St. Agnes is a very elegant fabric ; and the Carthusian monastery, which stands without the city, is likewise celebrated for the beauty of it's church, in which are thirty-two stalls of a valuable sort of wood, inlaid in the most curious manner with ivory, valued at a thousand dollars each.

Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden besieged and took this city in 1631 ; when, among other valuable spoils, a massy crucifix of gold, upwards of six feet in height, fell into his hands.

And in 1689, Prince Charles of Lorrain, having formed a junction with the Electors of Saxony and Bavaria, laid siege to this city, which was reduced by the confederates in forty days from the commencement of the blockade.

Treves, or Triers, the capital of an electorate of the same name, is pleasantly situated between two mountains on the River Moselle, over which it has a superb bridge, in 49 degrees 58 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 10 minutes east longitude. The antiquity of this city is so remote, that history informs us it was inhabited by the Treviri long before the Christian æra: the ancient Roman emperors afterwards occasionally made it their residence; and in the reign of Constantine the Great it was reputed the capital of all Gaul. Indeed, the remains of Roman architecture still discernible incontestibly prove it's former consequence.

The Archiepiscopal Palace was handsomely rebuilt by the Elector Francis George, and stands near the cathedral dedicated to St. Peter; which last mentioned structure is of great extent, and enjoys an elevated situation. The other most considerable edifices are, the three Collegiate, and the five Parochial churches; and the Jesuits colleges, monasteries, and nunneries, which are pretty numerous and rich.

The imperial city of Cologne (in Latin *Colonia Agrippina*) is one of the most ancient and populous cities of Germany, lying in a charming country on the banks of the Rhine; in 50 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and 6 degrees 45 minutes east longitude. The Ubii were it's original founders; who being taken under the Roman protection, removed to the west of the Rhine. During the reign of the Emperor Claudius, a Roman colony was sent hither; and, from his consort Agrippina, this place received the name of Colonia Agrippina, since contracted to Cologne.

This city affords a delightful prospect at a distance; and being situated in a fine campaign country; makes a grand appearance on every side. It is built in form of a crescent, and defended by a strong wall on the side next the Rhine, with out-works, half-moons, and ravelins; the number of towers being eighty-three, round which run three deep parallel ditches. A flying-bridge extends over the Rhine to the opposite town of Duits; which bridge is so constructed, that it is impossible the large flat-boats on which it is built can be loosened either by the efforts of art or the impetuosity of the stream.

The Cathedral of St. Peter is a noble pile, having a steeple two hundred and fifty feet high, from whence there is a delightful view of the city and adjacent country. Upon the principal altar lies, in a silver coffin, the body of St. Englebert, archbishop of Cologne, who suffered martyrdom under Dioclesian. His statue, (of white marble) in his pontifical dress, rests on a table of black marble, his head reclining on his hand; while two angels, of the same materials, stand at his feet, the one supporting a crown, and the other a branch of palm, gilt.

The ancient tombs in this edifice are so numerous, that it is impossible to give a minute description of each: but it would be unpardonable not to mention that celebrated one which has been erected to the memory of the Three Kings, or Magi, of the East, who came to offer presents to the infant Jesus; whose remains, we are seriously informed, were removed thither from Milan in 1162, when Frederick Barbarossa ravaged that city. These bodies are deposited in a large purple shrine variegated with gold, supported by a pedestal

pedestal of brass inclosed in a square mausoleum of marble: this mausoleum is erected in a small chapel behind the choir; and their shrine is opened every morning at nine o'clock, when these kings are exhibited lying at full length. Abundance of miracles are attributed to their remains; and, among others, it is asserted, that during a great drought in Hungary, a number of people set out on a pilgrimage from thence to implore the assistance of these three holy men, which they immediately obtained by a speedy fall of rain; in commemoration of which, every seven years a body of Hungarians visit their shrine, and are entertained by the magistracy of Cologne in a handsome manner for a fortnight. The head of each of these imaginary kings supports a golden diadem, adorned with precious stones of various kinds; and their names, Gaspar, Melchior, and Balthazar, are delineated in purple characters upon a little grate before the shrine, ornamented in the most brilliant manner imaginable with an infinite number of large and valuable pearls; and various precious stones, among which is an oriental topaz as big as a pigeon's egg. A little above the shrine are suspended two noble cups of gold, and a man on horseback of the same precious metal, votive pieces to these enshrined monarchs. Opposite to these are six large silver branches, with tapers of virgin-wax kept perpetually burning. In a compartment before the shrine, are two Latin verses cut in marble, signifying that 'Here three bodies of the Magi lie entire, and no part of them any where else.' On the apex of the front of this splendid mausoleum the history of their Adoration is represented in basso-relievo, on white marble; over the sculpture is a large star, gilt; and in another part are six Latin verses alluding to their Three Offerings, and the three devotional uses to be made of them, namely, tears, a pure heart, and prayers offered to Christ from an humble soul. Upon the back of the mausoleum, in basso-relievo, is represented, on white marble, the legend of the Translation of the Three Magi from Milan to Cologne, with an account of the procession performed on that occasion.

In the church of St. Ursula are shewn the tombs of the Eleven Thousand Virgins massacred by the Huns at Cologne: and it is pretended that the earth here is rendered so holy by these virgins, that it will not receive any other corpses; in confirmation of which, the tomb of a daughter of a certain Duke of Brabant is pointed out, who raised herself up as she was going to be interred, and remained suspended in the air till taken down and deposited in the present mausoleum. In a spacious chapel adjoining to this church, the bones of these legendary saints are hung up in the most regular and decent manner; and among them are some which appear to have belonged to children not more than five or six years of age: but a celebrated physician having declared, that among this collection of bones there were several of large mastiff dogs, and boasted that he could incontestibly prove his assertion; he was regarded as an heretic, condemned to pay a considerable fine, and banished the diocese of Cologne.

The collegiate church of St. Gerion is remarkable for the tapestry covering it's choir; and for nine hundred heads of Moorish cavaliers, the companions of Gregory an Ethiopian prince and Christian, who were all slain on their march to join the Emperor Constantine's army: these are all ranged in small niches, between every two of which is a gilt foliage of carved work; and a scarlet cap adorned with pearls on every head. In a corner of this church

church is shewn one of the pillars of the scaffold on which these pious martyrs were beheaded, a piece of fine jasper spotted with blood about a foot in diameter.

The church belonging to the Jesuits is a very lofty and elegant structure, and contains the statues of the twelve Apostles, and many saints, as large as the life: besides some pictures; and treasure of inestimable value, consisting of gold branches, lustres, busts, vases, chalices, patens, cups, plates, and other sacred utensils in general, enriched with pearls and precious stones.

The Church of the Maccabees is adorned with their history painted in eight compartments on the wall. The heads of these martyrs are deposited in the tabernacle of the principal altar, each supporting a crown richly adorned with pearls, rubies, and emeralds. In this place likewise is shewn the pretended head of St. Joachim, the father of the Virgin Mary; and that of St. Anne, her mother; with an infinite variety of other relics. The history of the martyrdom of the Eleven Thousand Virgins is also painted on several parts of the walls; and near the church is a well, into which they pretend their blood was poured, in contradiction to a tradition among the Ursulines, as has been noticed above.

The Church of St. Pantaleon is adorned with eighteen compartments of paintings, representing the history of that saint, who was a physician in Nicomedia. On account of his inviolable adherence to the Christian religion, he was put to a variety of tortures by the Emperor Galerius Armentarius. In the tenth painting he is represented as plunged into a cauldron of melted lead, from which, the legend informs us, he came out unhurt. In the two last paintings, he is depicted as precipitated from a high rock into the sea, with a mill-stone suspended from his neck, but without sinking: his head being then cut off, we are farther informed that two fountains immediately sprung up, one of blood, and the other of milk. This church is likewise ornamented with the history of St. Alban in twelve capital paintings; and behind the great altar his pretended bones are shewn deposited in a beautiful silver shrine.

The Church of the Apostles is chiefly remarkable for a story, represented in painting near its entrance; that of a burgo-master's wife, who being interred in 1571, with a valuable ring on her finger, the sexton resolved to secure this jewel, and to that end paid a nocturnal visit to the grave; but was so extremely alarmed when he found the supposed corpse grasp his hand, that he made a very precipitate retreat. The lady, however, emerging from her tomb, returned home, and knocking at the door, informed a servant of the whole adventure; but the fellow taking her for the ghost of his deceased mistress, ran in a violent fright, and told his master of what had happened; when the gentleman immediately exclaimed, 'that he would as soon believe his horses were in the garret.' These words were hardly pronounced, before an uncommon noise was heard in the garret; and the servant running up, to his inexpressible amazement, found six coach-horses there. By this time the lady had obtained admission, and the horses were next day let down from the garret by certain machines contrived for that purpose. Absurd as this story may appear, it is firmly believed in this city; and to this day there are shewn in the garret several wooden

wooden horses, said to be covered with the skins of those who were exalted thither: and in the church just mentioned is a large piece of linen cloth spun by the lady thus released from the grave, who afterwards lived seven years.

The infinite number of curiosities celebrated by superstitious credulity in the beautiful and rich churches of Cologne, have tempted us to be unusually prolix in our description of them. From the stories we have adduced, which are all regarded, at least by the vulgar, as entitled to the highest degree of credit, may easily be discovered the weakness of the human mind, when shackled by religious enthusiasm, and debarred the privilege of free enquiry. Can we wonder at the prodigious influence of the Romish clergy, when such legends as we have related meet with so easy a belief; and when spiritual censures would certainly overtake those who had either penetration enough to discover their fallacy, or resolution enough to expose it?

The Town House is a vast Gothic structure, said to be built after the model of the ancient Capitol at Rome. The front is adorned with a basso-relievo representing a man fighting a lion; and in the great hall are suspended five capital paintings, with Latin inscriptions annexed, designed to perpetuate the memory of the celebrated battle of Hockstet, gained, by the bravery and conduct of the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, over the French and Bavarians. The other apartments are adorned with several superb productions of the pencil; particularly a picture of the Last Judgment, sixteen feet by eight; and a fine representation of the Crucifixion, by Vandyke.

Cologne had formerly the honour of belonging to the Hanseatic Confederacy, and boasts of having preserved its liberty without intermission for numerous ages; but the calamities of war have frequently deranged its government and interrupted its commerce. The Dutch employ it as a magazine for their trade on the Rhine; and, because of the advantages they derive from it, have on all occasions supported its independency. It is governed by the chapter and magistrates; the latter consisting of two burgo-masters and forty-nine counsellors. The Elector has likewise the privilege of nominating a judge in criminal causes; and the city swears allegiance and homage to him, on his accession, as long as he shall continue to protect them in the uninterrupted exercise of their ancient rights and immunities.

As a free and imperial city, Cologne has a seat and voice at the diets of the Westphalian Circle; and at those of the empire, in the college of the imperial cities; enjoying at the same time the first place on the Rhenish Bench. It always contains four companies of soldiers; but, in time of war, is usually strongly garrisoned by the Emperor, or some ally.

Heidelberg, the principal town of the Palatine electorate, stands on a pleasant spot on the River Geisberg, near the Neckar; in 49 degrees 36 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 55 minutes east longitude; enjoying a salubrious air and excellent water. The surrounding hills are covered with vines, and the prospect of the adjacent country is fertile and luxuriant. This town, though finely built, is of small extent; and is adorned with an university under the superintendence of an academical senate, consisting of three professors in divinity, four in law, three in physic, and six in philosophy. The first professorship, for teaching the law of nature and nations, was originally founded for the ce-

lebrated Puffendorf, who began his system at this university, and afterwards finished it in Sweden.

Among the principal beauties of Heidelberg, is one large handsome street, with a spacious square and uniform market. The Elector's Palace, situated on the ascent of a neighbouring hill, which overlooks the city, was once remarkable for its strength, and celebrated for the beauty of its gardens and grottos, but now bears the most evident marks of war and desolation; and having been frequently destroyed, and as often repaired after the most capricious designs, cannot properly be said to be either Gothic or modern.

Heidelberg, however, is famous for its Tun of uncommon magnitude, originally placed in a cellar under the tower of the Electoral Palace; but, being emptied for the first time by the French in 1688, was knocked in pieces: however, the Elector ordered a new one to be made of superior dimensions, decorated with a variety of devices; though it is still inferior in size to the noble tun of Koningstein in Saxony, which has been already described.

The calamities which this city has suffered in war, especially from the French, are painful to relate; for, since the disgrace of Frederick, Elector Palatine, it has been four times taken, plundered, and burnt. The Electoral Library, kept in the church of the Holy Ghost, according to Scaliger, might once have vied with the Vatican itself, and infinitely surpassed any in Germany for the number of curious manuscripts; but when Count Tilly, the Imperial general, possessed himself of this place in 1622, and put some hundred Palatines to the sword, the most valuable part of this library was sent to enrich the Vatican. In 1688, the French seized this city; but, on the approach of the Imperial army, contrary to the express terms of the capitulation, they blew up the castle, and laid the town, with the Elector's palace, churches, and public buildings, in ashes. Heidelberg was again rebuilt; but again fell under the power of the French in 1693, when the inhabitants were brutally murdered; and even the ladies (who had implored the French general to spare their honour, to which he had acceded, and ordered them to retire into the great church) were ravished, stripped, and treated with every indignity, in the very place they were recommended to for shelter. The city was entirely laid in ashes; the electoral tombs were broken up; and the wretched inhabitants, amounting to fifteen thousand, expelled the city in the night, when many died through want, or fell victims to grief and despair.

The Elector, after this, prevailed on the people to rebuild the city, and promised them an exemption from taxes for thirty years, with full liberty of conscience; but attempting, in a short time afterwards, to deprive his Protestant subjects of the immunities he had before voluntarily conferred upon them, the Elector of Brandenburg and other Protestant states were obliged to interfere in their behalf.

The city again fell into the hands of the French in 1709; when they laid the neighbouring country under such heavy contributions, and so greatly impoverished the inhabitants, that several thousands of them took shelter in foreign countries, particularly in England, Ireland, and British America. However, after this, the city gradually began to recover itself; but the Elector, conceiving a disgust against the Calvinistical inhabitants, who refused to deliver up to him the body of the great church, which had been allotted them by the treaty of Westphalia, quitted Heidelberg, and fixed his residence at Mannheim,
a small

a small town situated near the confluence of the Neckar and the Rhine; since which time this city has been rapidly verging to decay.

Francfort on the Maine, honoured with being the usual place of the election and coronation of the Roman kings, the seat of assembly of the Rhenish states, and an ancient member of the Hanseatic League, is situated in 50 degrees 16 minutes north latitude, and in 7 degrees 36 minutes east longitude, in a delightful, salubrious, and fertile soil; and is divided by the Maine into two parts, distinguished by the names of Francfort and Saxenhausen; the former of which is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two. The fortifications are of a decagonal form, strong and regular; the ditches are deep, and plentifully filled with water; and outworks of amazing solidity defend the gates.

The Town Hall of Francfort is a beautiful pile: the front is supported by arches, over which is a grand apartment where the Emperor usually dines after his coronation; the floor being covered with black and yellow cloth, the Austrian livery; and the ceiling is adorned with various historical paintings of striking beauty. In this edifice, likewise, is the hall where the Emperor is elected, superbly adorned with masterly pictures; particularly those of Esther and Ahasuerus; the History of Sufannah and the Two Elders; Dionysius the Tyrant and his Favourite Damocles, with a noble Feast before him, and a Sword suspended over his Head by a slender Thread; Sesostris, King of Egypt, with his Chariot drawn by captive Kings; Eginhard, Secretary to Charlemagne, and Emma his Spouse; Scipio Africanus restoring a young captive Princess inviolate to her Bridegroom; and Bathsheba in the act of Bathing.

The city offices and the Diet Chamber of the Circle of the Upper Rhine occupy the back part of this structure. In the archives is deposited the Golden Bull of the Emperor Charles IV. a parchment book of forty-three leaves quarto, comprizing the fundamental institutes of the empire, written in Latin.

The cathedral dedicated to St. Bartholomew is a spacious edifice; but is chiefly remarkable for containing the chapel where the electors, or their representatives, sit at the election of an emperor; and another chapel where the elected emperor is conducted in order to be crowned by the Elector of Mentz, which in fact is nothing more than an iron cloister joined to the balustrade of the choir, in some respects resembling a parrot's cage, and entirely destitute of ornament.

The clock belonging to this cathedral is perhaps one of the most ingenious pieces of mechanism any where to be met with. It consists of three parts, or divisions: in the lowest, resembling a calendar, are several circles; the first of which shews the day and the month; the second, the age and change of the moon, with the Golden Number; the third, the Dominical Letter; the fourth and fifth circles represent the ancient Roman calendar; the sixth contains the names of the apostles and martyrs, the length of the days and nights, and the entrance of the sun into the twelve signs of the zodiac; and the seventh and eighth circles exhibit the hour and minute of the sun's rising and setting. In the interior circles are the divisions of the twelve signs of the zodiac, the four seasons, the moveable feasts, and other calendary information. The figures which strike the hours represent two

two smiths with hammers in their hands. This curious piece of clock-work was first put up in 1605; and, for near a century, did not stand in need of the least repair.

This cathedral is said to have been built by Pepin King of France, and greatly enriched by his son Charlemagne; but the Emperor Lewis, of the Electoral House of Bavaria, deprived it of a considerable part of its revenues, out of revenge to the Chapter, who sided with the Pope his enemy: it still, however, remains in the possession of the Catholics, though the majority of the inhabitants are Lutherans.

The other religious structures are, the collegiate churches of St. Leonard and Our Lady; the church of the Predicants, adorned with some paintings by Albert Durer; the Great Church, St. Catharine's, and St. Nicholas's, belonging to the Lutherans; and several more appropriated to the use of different persuasions.

A seminary of divines instituted by a Dr. Pridius, a Lutheran gymnasium, with a library and a well-endowed hospital, may be reckoned among the ornaments of Francfort.

Exclusive of the suburbs, this city is of a circular form. The private houses, which are principally constructed of timber, and plaister covered with slate, make no very elegant appearance: nevertheless, there are some handsome structures of a species of red marble, and several stately palaces, belonging to the nobility.

The bridge, forming the communication between Francfort and Saxenhausen, is four hundred and fifty paces in length; and over its entrance is a grand gate, with a Latin inscription, in letters of gold, signifying, that it was repaired in the reign of Leopold I. to whom some very handsome compliments are paid at the expence of the city of Francfort.

The Jews have a separate quarter allotted them; with a gate at each end, which is carefully secured every evening, and the keys carried to the magistrates. These people make as wretched an appearance as their habitations, their trade is very circumscribed, and their privileges few. However, they, as well as the Papists, are indulged in the free exercise of their religion; and, indeed, the latter have many churches and convents belonging to them: notwithstanding which, neither the French nor German Calvinists are permitted to have any place of religious worship within the walls, though large sums of money have frequently been offered to the magistrates to purchase that indulgence.

The fairs held at Francfort are famous all over Europe; and it has been calculated by no incompetent judges, that ten millions of dollars would hardly purchase the merchandize exposed to sale at one of them.

Francfort is reckoned the sixth imperial city in the diet of the Rhine; and its magistracy are composed of a judge, the bench of Schoffen, or aldermen; the second bench of the council, together with the third, being composed of artificers and tradesmen. The last is generally summoned in matters of public concern, and to them the regulation of the police is committed; but the sole direction of important affairs is vested in the two former, out of whom two burgo-masters are annually elected. The territorial property of this city contains a considerable number of villages, seats, and farms; and the banks of the Rhine are covered with a number of beautiful gardens and vineyards, but the wines they produce are not very remarkable either for strength or flavour.

Paderborn, an ancient city, and the capital of a bishopric, standing in a delightful country,

try, in 51 degrees 45 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 25 minutes east longitude, is chiefly remarkable for some springs which rise here and in the vicinity; the five largest of which issue from under the cathedral and some adjacent buildings, and discharge such a copious stream, that they drive several mills at twenty paces distance. This cathedral was formerly enriched with the images of the Twelve Apostles in fine silver; but, in 1622, Duke Christian of Brunswick carried them off, and melted them down into rix-dollars, with this inscription, '*God's friend, the priest's enemy.*' This city was formerly ranked among the Hanse Towns, and carried on a considerable trade; but it's inhabitants now principally subsist by agriculture and other rural occupations.

At Melborn, in the vicinity, are three curious springs, two of which rise not above a yard apart; the first is limpid and tinged with blue, lukewarm, and impregnated with several minerals; the second is gelid as ice, turbid and whitish, and is believed to be a perfect cure for worms; and the third, which is about twenty paces distant, is of a transparent greenish hue, and has a kind of subacid taste.

Munster, (in Latin *Monasterium*) a fortified city of a circular form, and the capital of a bishopric, is situated in a most delightful and fertile country on the River Aa, in 52 degrees 16 minutes north latitude, and in 7 degrees 12 minutes east longitude. The houses are principally built in the antique taste, but there are some elegant modern structures. There are five collegiate, and six parochial churches; a college belonging to the Jesuits; and a great number of convents, and other religious institutions, in general stately structures, and some of them remarkable for the agreeableness of their situation and the beauty of their gardens.

But this city is particularly remarkable for a treaty concluded here, in 1648, between the Swedes, the Emperor, and the Princes of the Empire; by which a termination was put to a bloody war of thirty years duration. This decisive treaty established the fortune of many sovereigns, the liberties of the empire in general, and the free exercise of the Protestant religion; and upon the basis of this grand pacification subsequent treaties in the northern kingdoms have in a great measure been founded.

Liege, a celebrated and well fortified city, standing on the River Maese, by which part of it is insulated, in 50 degrees 46 minutes north latitude, and in 5 degrees 28 minutes east longitude, is the capital of a bishopric, and famous for it's religious institutions and rich endowments. At the foot of a mountain, called Holy Wallburg, stands the grand Episcopal Palace, which was consumed by fire in 1734, but soon after rebuilt in a magnificent and regular stile. This city is furnished with sixteen gates, seventeen bridges, twelve public squares, an hundred and fifty-four streets, a grand cathedral, seven collegiate churches, thirty-two parishes, five abbeys for men and an equal number for women, thirty-two cloisters of both sexes, two colleges of Jesuits, a seminary, ten hospitals, and a chartreuse. The ecclesiastical endowments, indeed, are so rich, that Liege is emphatically called the Paradise of Priests.

The cathedral dedicated to St. Lambert is of vast extent, and contains an infinite variety of relics, besides busts and statues of gold and silver. The church of St. Paul is much

celebrated for the beauty of it's structure, and the value of it's ornaments; and, indeed, the religious erections in general are extremely elegant. In St. William's convent lies Sir John Mandeville, the renowned and romantic English traveller; and near his grave are preserved his saddle, spurs, and knife.

In this city several extensive manufactures are carried on, particularly those of arms, leather, and serge. The magistracy have been very severely handled by their bishop, for disputing his authority; and their town has suffered considerably by the ravages of war, being bombarded by the French in 1691, and taken by the Duke of Marlborough in 1702.

Osnaburg, (in Latin *Osnabruga*) which stands in a vale by the River Hase, in 52 degrees 42 minutes north latitude, and in 7 degrees 38 minutes east longitude, is a neat and compact city, adorned with several splendid public structures, and encompassed by walls and ditches. The private edifices, which are principally built in the ancient stile of architecture, amount to twelve hundred; but the place is not proportionably populous. The episcopal palace belonging to the Electoral House of Brunswic Lunenburg is of an hexagonal form, adorned with a turret at each corner, and extremely well fortified, being detached from the town by a bridge. In one of the apartments of this palace, George I. King of Great-Britain, expired in the arms of his brother Prince Ernest; and it is said that in the same room he received his birth.

The cathedral dedicated to St. Peter is principally remarkable for containing the bodies of St. Crispin and Crispinian, deposited in silver coffins. The cathedral church of St. John contains nothing worth notice; and the Lutheran churches of St. Mary and St. Catharine are equally destitute of ornaments or curiosities.

Osnaburg contains a college of the order of Jesus; a monastery of Dominicans; a nunnery of Augustines; a commandery belonging to the Teutonic order of St. George, and a seat of the order of St. John; a Lutheran gymnasium; and a Jesuitical seminary held in the Collegium Carolinum; besides three handsome hospitals, and a Romish and Lutheran orphan-house.

This city is famous for being the first in Westphalia that received the doctrines of Luther. It's magistracy, which are of the Lutheran persuasion, possess almost absolute power within the walls; the jurisdiction of the bishop being denied to extend even to the regulation of ecclesiastical concerns. The principal trade of the inhabitants consists in the manufacture of linen cloth; at present in a very flourishing condition, and attended with considerable emolument.

Aix-la-Chapelle, (in Latin *Aquis Granum*) a free Imperial city, stands in a pleasant vale, surrounded by hills, woods, and vineyards; in 50 degrees 44 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 28 minutes east longitude; fortified with two walls about a league and a half in circumference, the interior wall being adorned with ten gates, and the exterior with eleven.

Considering it's extent, this city contains a surprizing number of beautiful public buildings, baths, and other curiosities. It was long esteemed the capital of the empire, and the proper Imperial residence; and, during the space of five hundred years, the emperors always

always received the rite of inauguration at this place: hence a part of the Imperial regalia is still preserved in the church of St. Mary, consisting of the Sword of Charlemagne, and a manuscript copy of the Gospels in a silver cover, gilt. But though its ancient splendor is in a great measure lost, it still claims the first place on the Rhenish Bench, in the college of the Imperial cities; and is allowed the second among the Imperial cities which enjoy a seat and voice at the diet of the Circle of Westphalia.

The majority of the inhabitants are of the Romish persuasion, the Protestants being debarred the public exercise of their religion within the territories of the city. The magistracy bear the titles of Burgo-master, Sheriff, and Council of the Holy Roman Imperial City of Aix-la-Chapelle; and the city arms are, an Eagle displayed, Sable; with the head, crown, feet, and claws, Or, in a field, Argent.

Among the most celebrated structures which adorn this city, the Town House is one of the most magnificent, containing all the statues of the emperors since Charlemagne; and many beautiful historical paintings, among which is a capital representation of the Resurrection, and another of Charlemagne conferring the Charter of Privileges on this city. The superior story of this edifice consists entirely of one hall of vast dimensions, in which the emperors used to entertain the electors and princes of the empire who assisted at their coronation.

Opposite the Town House stands a noble fountain with four springs, on the apex of which is a large brass statue, gilt, of Charlemagne in full armour; besides which, the city is adorned with twenty other public fountains, both elegant and beneficial.

The cathedral, consecrated by Pope Leo III. in the presence of Charlemagne and three hundred and sixty-five bishops, is a spacious Gothic pile, having a fine steeple adorned with several pyramids, and crowned with a globe and cross. This structure is internally ornamented with a vast number of brass and marble pillars, gilt statues, brass doors and partitions, and fine mosaic work. Over the place of Charlemagne's interment hangs a large silver crown gilt, ornamented with sixteen small turrets, surrounded with forty-eight statues a foot high, and thirty-two of smaller dimensions, all of solid silver. Among these are interspersed forty-eight candlesticks, which, on grand festivals, hold not less than four hundred and fifty tapers. Every seventh year, a jubilee is celebrated; at which season the principal relics deposited here are exposed to view; particularly a gown, or shift, which the Catholics pretend was worn by the Virgin Mary at our Saviour's birth, made of a species of flax; but as it is only shown from the top of a high tower, it is difficult to say of what kind of manufacture it consists. Another valued relic is a coarse linen cloth, which we are told begirt our Saviour at the time of his crucifixion; a third is a piece of the cord with which he was bound; and a fourth, some earth stained with the blood of the martyr St. Stephen, curiously enclosed in a vessel of gold adorned with precious stones, on which the emperors were usually sworn at their inauguration.

At the extremity of the cathedral, our Saviour is represented majestically seated on a throne, dressed in a long white robe; and round the throne are the Four Animals depicted in Ezekiel's Vision. His head is encircled with golden stars, and underneath appears the symbol of the cross seen by Constantine when he defeated Maxentius. The Twenty-four Elders,

Elders, recorded in the Revelations, are likewise represented, in the most lively manner, rising from their seats, laying their crowns aside, and prostrating themselves before the throne.

The windows of this noble edifice are curiously gilt, and the pavement is formed of chequered marble. Over the chief altar is a silver chest adorned with gold, curiously engraved, in which the most valuable relics are preserved. A pulpit, erected at the entrance of the choir, is cased with plates of gold and silver, adorned with precious stones, among which is an agate of uncommon magnitude and beauty, the gift of Henry II. The altar of the choir represents our Saviour's Passion, in plates of gold; and, in short, the quantity of treasure, sacred utensils, and ornaments, is really beyond conception, and must give every observer a very high idea of the magnificence and expence the Romish devotees bestow on their religious foundations.

Besides the cathedral already described, there are thirty other churches within the walls; which, however, contain nothing very remarkable.

The baths of Aix-la-Chapelle have been celebrated for numerous ages; the three principal of which obtain the names of the Emperor's, St. Quirinus's, and the Little Bath. The Emperor Charlemagne was so captivated with the first, that he frequently invited his sons and favourites to bathe and swim with him in it. The springs of the two last are so intensely hot, that they are permitted to cool ten or twelve hours before using. They are strongly impregnated with nitre and sulphur, and sometimes cakes of brimstone and saltpetre of a considerable thickness are found at the bottom. The taste of the waters is at first unpleasing, and their smell is extremely nauseating to a stranger. Near the above-mentioned baths is a spring of warm water, reckoned extremely beneficial in chronic diseases.

The New Town contains the baths of the Rose, St. Corneille, and the Poor; the waters of which are only moderately tepid, but their qualities and effects seem nearly correspondent with the former. Near these hot springs lie many cold ones, by which their heat might be tempered to any degree required; and, at a small expence, some of the most delightful baths in the universe might be formed by their union.

In the vicinity of this city likewise are several beautiful mineral springs, some of which are converted into baths for the accommodation of the lower ranks, who frequently use them both for health and diversion.

In the city of Aix-la-Chapelle, a considerable manufactory of cloth, copper, and brass, is carried on. In 1656, it suffered extremely by fire; and in 1756 was considerably damaged by a shock of an earthquake: however, it has since entirely recovered these calamities, and is now esteemed a very fine city. It is also memorable for having been the seat of convention for the plenipotentiaries of different European powers in 1668 and 1748, when two celebrated treaties of peace were concluded which still bear its name.

Constance, an ancient imperial city, is situated on the beautiful and extensive lake of the same name near the efflux of the Rhine, in 47 degrees 42 minutes north latitude, and 9 degrees 10 minutes east longitude. It was put under the ban of the empire in 1548, on
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it's deserting the Romish religion; and next year was disfranchised, and subjected to the Austrian government, under which it has since continued. This city is but of small extent, but tolerably well fortified on one side by the Rhine, and on the other by the fort of Petershausen.

The opulence and trade of this city were once very considerable; the city itself was well built and strongly fortified; but many of the buildings have fallen to decay, and the trade has dwindled to insignificance. The churches, particularly St. Stephen's Cathedral, are in a grand but antique stile of architecture; and the Exchange, Town House, and Episcopal Palace, are also handsome structures. The pulpit of the cathedral is supported by a statue of John Hufs, who was sentenced to be burnt in this city; and his statue, placed in this manner, is intended as a farther mark of indignity, though it would naturally admit of a contrary construction. The superstitious vulgar firmly believe that the place where this celebrated reformer submitted to his fate was cursed, so that it has ever since been unfriendly to vegetation: but though superstition tenaciously adheres to this opinion, in contradiction to common sense, several authentic and liberal-minded travellers affirm, that the place is covered with verdure, and is not distinguished by any evident peculiarity.

Constance will ever be memorable in history for it's councils. The first on record was in 1045, when an assembly of the princes, under the Emperor Henry III. put a period to the calamities of the empire by a pacification concluded here at a crisis when there were three candidates for the papal chair, whose claims were all disallowed, and another elected by the title of Clement II. The Emperor Sigismund summoned another council at this city, in 1414, upon three rival popes, supported by the different interests of the French, Spaniards, and Italians, pretending to the gift of infallibility; when this council deposed them all, and chose Martin V. in their room. The same council likewise condemned the doctrines of John Wickliff, John Hufs, and Jerome of Prague; with the most unchristian zeal sentencing the two latter to be burnt alive, though the former had a safe conduct granted him by the Emperor, and causing the very bones of Wickliff to be dug up and burnt. To this council, distinguished for it's numbers and it's bigotry, we owe that diabolical tenet, which would disgrace any religion, 'That faith is not to be kept with heretics, nor with those suspected of heresy.'

The Imperial city of Augsburg, originally called Vindelica, and afterwards Augusta Vindelicorum, or Rhætorum, lies in a fertile, salubrious, and pleasant country, in 48 degrees 23 minutes north latitude, and in 10 degrees 59 minutes east longitude, between the Rivers Léch and Wertach, which unite below the city. Augsburg is commonly divided into three parts; and is surrounded with ramparts, walls, and ditches, and furnished with four large and six small gates.

Among the religious, literary, and benevolent institutions, we may enumerate the cathedral, six Popish churches, six Lutheran parish-churches, a Jesuits college, the abbies of Ulrich and Afra, three nunneries, a Lutheran gymnasium, the Imperial Franciscan Academy, and a variety of hospitals for the poor, sick, and destitute.

The Town House is esteemed the most superb of any in Germany, and was finished in 1620. On the front, below the pediment, stands a large Spread Eagle cast in brass, and

crowned, holding in his talons a gilt sceptre and globe weighing twenty-two hundred weight, erected at the expence of fifteen thousand German florins. The great portal is formed of a very beautiful species of red marble, and is ornamented with a balcony supported by two beautiful columns of white marble. The apartments in general are light and elegant, abounding with capital historical paintings, busts, and statues.

The beautiful fountain of Augustus stands in a square near the Town-house; and is composed of a marble basin, surrounded by an iron balustrade of curious workmanship, with four large brass statues standing on the verge, intended to represent the four little rivers, Lech, Wertach, Sinkel, and Source. In the centre of the basin rises a square pedestal, at the foot of which are four large sphinxes spouting water from their breasts; and a little higher are four infants, each holding a dolphin in his arms, from whose mouths flow copious streams of water. The pedestal is crowned with a brazen statue of Augustus, laurelled, and accoutred after the ancient Roman manner.

The next most elegant fountain is that of Hercules, consisting of a spacious hexagonal basin; with several brass figures, particularly one of Hercules combating the Hydra, a performance universally admired.

The Episcopal Palace is rather a mean edifice, but remarkable for containing the hall in which the Augsbourg Confession was presented to the Emperor Charles V. The brass door of the cathedral represents the Virgin Mary taking Eve out of Adam's Side, the only curiosity belonging to the structure. However, we must not neglect to mention the singular device of the monks of St. Ulric to obtain money, which consists in their disposing of a dust or powder called St. Ulric's Earth, and recommending it in the name of that saint, who, we are told, drove all the rats out of the city and neighbourhood into a hole still visible in the church dedicated to his name. This dust is dug up from the place of his inhumation; but as the effect ascribed to it, that of destroying rats, has never been ascertained by naturalists, we are apt to suppose it derives its value solely from superstitious credulity.

Augsbourg has always been famous for its ingenious artizans; particularly in jewellery, clock-work, and turnery: the minuteness and extreme delicacy of some of their performances in those branches of mechanism exceed all description; and the low price at which the most curious articles are sold is almost incredible. The trade of the city, however, though still considerable, is much inferior to what it formerly was.

A remarkable peculiarity has been observed by travellers in the variety of habits worn by the inhabitants; which are so exactly regulated by the magistracy, that the difference of their religion and quality may in general be known by their dress.

The garrison of Augsbourg usually consists of three hundred men; and the burghers are estimated at six thousand. One half of the council is of the Lutheran, and the other half of the Roman Catholic persuasion. The magistracy is composed of forty-five persons, of whom thirty-one are patricians; four are chosen from those who have married the daughters of noblemen, five from the body of the merchants, and five from the commonalty.

In the Imperial diet, Augsbourg possesses the second place on the bench of the Imperial cities

cities of Swabia; but in that of the Circle, it is entitled to the first seat and voice. At this place a grand alliance was concluded between the Emperor, Spain, Sweden, and some other powers, against France, in 1786; and in 1703 and 1704 it suffered much from the French and Bavarian armies.

It appears that Germany was, in the earliest ages of the world, divided into many petty nations and principalities, under every species of government, elective, hereditary, democratical, aristocratical, and absolute; but however disunited by local and political institutions in private concerns, on any public emergency these various states and kingdoms frequently put themselves under the command of one chieftain or general, who led them on to conquer or to die.

Such was the state of the Germans before the Roman conquest. At that æra their children were destitute of cloathing; and even the men, unless of the highest quality, only suspended the skin of some wild beast from their shoulders, fastening it with a thong. Their food was the simple produce of uncultivated nature; and their way of living was entirely calculated to promote personal strength and activity, to divest them of local prejudices, and to inspire them with a martial enthusiasm.

With regard to morality and religion, they were extremely strict; the sacerdotal office was filled from the noble line; and even women were not debarred from the priestly function, whose professors, of whatever sex, were treated with the most profound respect by the laity. Like the ancient Britons, they performed their sacrifices in groves, the oak being usually selected for an altar; and an arbour, formed of the boughs of oak and beech interwoven, supplied the place of a temple. Not only beasts, but also men, were offered up to their supposed divinities: however, these human victims were generally chosen from among the slaves and malefactors. Firmly fixed in the belief of the doctrine of transmigration, all ranks possessed an uncommon intrepidity and contempt of death; and, in hopes of animating a body of superior rank, numbers of them, on very trifling occasions, submitted to voluntary death.

Such were the manners of the Germans for a long succession of ages; brave, rough, and moral; hospitable to their friends, and to strangers who sought their protection; but obstinately inveterate against their foes, and jealous of their natural rights. The Romans, the conquerors of the world, could never subjugate this determined race; and, when in the full zenith of their glory, were obliged to make the Rhine and the Danube the boundary of their conquests.

After the declension of the Roman empire, when the conquered retorted the injustice they had received, Germany still preserved its original forms of government; and, notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains to reduce the weaker states to subjection, few innovations were discernible in the German constitution till the commencement of the ninth century, when Charlemagne, one of those excentric and original geniuses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, found means first to extend his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of this great man inherited the undiminished power he had established for near half a century; but being destitute of those shining qualities which adorned their illustrious progenitor, the
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different princes of the empire once more established their original independence; and rejecting the Carlovian line, placed Arnulph, King of Bohemia, on the throne. Since this æra, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy; though the prevalence of arms and interest have generally secured an elevation to the throne, independent of superior merit and abilities for the exercise of royal power. The most considerable families from which the Imperial throne was filled before the Austrians rose to such consequence, were those of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia.

In the early ages of the empire, the most remarkable occurrences were the disputes and animosities which subsisted between the emperors and the popes: hence arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibellines in the thirteenth century; of which the former espoused the Papal cause, and the latter the Imperial; and both, by their virulence and inveteracy, disturbing the quiet of the empire for a long succession of years. In these ages likewise the emperors were often engaged in war with the Infidels; and sometimes, as will ever happen in elective kingdoms, with one another, about the right of succession.

But a more material consideration presents itself to the judicious enquirer than an uninteresting scrutiny into remote transactions and party disputes; namely, the progress of government in this empire, which was in some measure opposite to that of the other European kingdoms. When the sudden empire of Charlemagne tumbled to pieces, the different independent princes assumed their right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of Electors, though they had no peculiar or legal influences in nominating a successor to the throne, being only the officers of the Imperial household; yet by degrees, as they had constant opportunities of promoting their interest by waiting on the royal person, they obtained so much influence and authority, that in the reign of Otho III. in 984, they enjoyed the sole and exclusive right of electing the Emperor. Thus, while the dignity of the great lords, who are all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminished in the other European kingdoms; in Germany, on the contrary, the power of the Electors was raised on the ruin of the Emperor's supremacy and the natural liberties of the people.

Frederick III. Grand Duke of Austria, the first of the line, was elevated to the Imperial throne in 1440; which dignity continued in the male race of that family for three hundred years. His successor Maximilian espoused the heiress of Charles Duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands were annexed to the House of Austria. Charles V. grandson of the last-mentioned emperor, and heir to the crown of Spain, was elevated to the throne in 1519. During his reign, Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards; and the Reformation begun in several parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed till the treaty of Westphalia in 1648. The repose of Charles's life was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes and Francis I. of France. At first, indeed, fortune seemed to smile upon his arms; but afterwards, one disaster succeeding another, he determined to resign the sceptre of royalty, and solemnly and formally abdicated his crown.

His brother Ferdinand I. who succeeded him in the Imperial power, secured the felicity of his reign by his moderation in religious matters; and, by his address, obtained the elec-
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tion of his son Maximilian, who in his own life-time was declared King of the Romans. By his last will he ordained, that if his own male-issue, or that of his brother Charles, became extinct, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife to the Elector of Bavaria, and her issue; which destination gave rise to the pretensions of the House of Bavaria, in opposition to those of the Pragmatic Sanction, on the demise of Charles V. as will be mentioned hereafter. A great part of the reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed by internal commotions, and an invasion of the Turks; however, he departed this life in peace, and was succeeded by his son Rodolph. The repose of this monarch was likewise interrupted by a war with the Hungarians, and the animosity that subsisted between him and his brother Matthias, to secure whose amity he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. Upon the demise of his brother, Matthias mounted the German throne; under whom the Lutheran and Calvinist reformers raised such commotions, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias at last reconciled these religious insurgents: but the Bohemians having revolted, threw the Imperial commissaries out of a lofty window at Prague, and thus gave rise to a ruinous war which lasted thirty years; during the rage of which, the Emperor flattered himself that he should be able to exterminate both the Protestant tribes; but they prevented the accomplishment of his wishes by a confederacy, called the Evangelic League, which was counterbalanced by a Catholic League.

Matthias departed this life in 1618, and was succeeded by his cousin Ferdinand II. But the Bohemians offering their crown to Frederic, the Elector Palatine, the most powerful Protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law of his Britannic Majesty James I. that prince inconsiderately accepted their offer, without reflecting on the danger of the gift; and being defeated by the Duke of Bavaria and the Imperial generals at the battle of Prague, he not only lost the Bohemian crown, but likewise the greatest part of his own electorate, which was given to the Duke of Bavaria. The Protestant princes of Germany, however, at this time, had many able commanders at the head of their armies, who continued the war with amazing obstinacy: among these, were the Margrave of Baden Durlach; Christian Duke of Brunswick; and Count Mansfield, one of the most consummate generals of his age. Christian IV. of Denmark openly declared for the Protestant interest; and the French, who were averse to the Austrian aggrandizement, secretly supported their cause. The Emperor, on the other hand, was provided with the most experienced generals; and Christian, who put himself at the head of the Evangelic League, was entirely defeated by the celebrated Imperial general Count Tilly. Ferdinand prosecuted his advantages with so much moderation, that the Protestants formed a fresh conspiracy at Leipzig, at the head of which was the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden; who, after an amazing train of victories, at last lost his life, in the moment of victory, at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the Protestant cause did not die with this renowned hero: the generals he had trained up in the arts of war continued to harass the Austrian power; till at last a general peace was concluded among the belligerents, under the mediation of Sweden, at Munster, in 1648, which at present forms the basis of the various political systems of Europe.

Ferdinand III. succeeded his father; the history of whose reign presents us with nothing remarkable. Leopold assumed the reins of government in 1657, on the demise of Ferdinand III. and proved equally unamiable and unsuccessful in his government. He contended with two mighty powers, France and Turkey, and was a loser in his wars with both. France possessed itself of Alsace, and many other frontier towns of the empire; and even Vienna must have submitted to the Turks, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, King of Poland. Prince Eugene of Savoy, a young adventurer in arms, and one of the Imperial generals, gave the Turks several signal overthrows in Hungary. The empire, however, must have sunk under the power of France, had not that nation, by pursuing their conquests with too much eagerness and rapidity, alarmed the other European powers; when a grand confederacy, consisting of the Empire, Great Britain, Holland, and the northern potentates, was formed, to check the farther progress of the French, and to counteract the ambitious views of Louis XIV. who aimed at nothing less than the establishment of an universal monarchy. At last a pacification was concluded at Ryfwick, in 1697, between the Christian powers; and, two years afterwards, the Turks consented to a cessation of hostilities, and articles of peace were signed at Carlowitz between them and the Emperor: however, the Hungarians, secretly animated by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, still continued in arms, under the protection of the Porte; but the death of the Emperor, in 1705, in some measure allayed the ferment.

Leopold was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put the Electors of Cologne and Bavaria under the ban of the empire. But Prince Lewis of Baden, the Imperial general, either through indolence or incapacity, badly managing the military affairs, gave the French an opportunity of partly recovering their losses, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The Emperor himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it appearing, from his conduct, that he expected Great Britain should support the principal burden of the war, of which he was to reap the whole benefit, his selfishness and inactivity disgusted his allies in the highest degree. He died in 1711, without male issue; and was succeeded by his brother Charles VI. whom the allies attempted to place on the Spanish throne, in opposition to Philip Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV.

This monarch, after the treaty of Utrecht, for some time shewed a disposition to continue the war; but finding himself unable to persevere, he was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden in 1714, that he might thereby be enabled to check the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a signal defeat from Prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin; and soon after another of equal importance from the same general before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialists: however, the peace of Passarowitz, concluded the year following, put a period to the dispute. Charles being now liberated from the avocations of war, employed his leisure time in making arrangements for the extension and preservation of his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Fortunately for this prince, the British crown devolved on the House of Hanover; an event which gave him a decided superiority, by the connections subsisting between George I. George II. and the Empire. The presumption of Charles, arising from this circumstance,

circumstance, so favourable to his interest, occasioned a rupture between him and George I. and so unsettled was the political system of Europe about this time, that old alliances were relinquished, and new ones formed repugnant to the principles of reason and interest. Without descending to the investigation of particular views, suffice it to observe, that the safety and aggrandizement of Hanover were the principal aims of the British court; as those of the Emperor were the confirmation of the Pragmatic Sanction in favour of his daughter the late Empress Queen, he being destitute of male issue. Reciprocal concessions on these important points restored a good understanding between George II. and the Emperor Charles; and the Elector of Saxony, influenced by the hope of one day ascending the Polish throne, relinquished his claims and views on the Austrian succession. These favourable occurrences, however, did not establish the repose of Charles's reign. To indemnify himself for the sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the Bourbon line, he had rashly plunged himself into a war with the Porte; and having lost that able and experienced general Prince Eugene, he was unable to supply his place with a commander of half his abilities. But a series of ill success awakened him to a sense of his indiscretion, and induced him to accede to overtures of peace, under the mediation of the court of France, which had at that time adopted a pacific system, under the administration of Cardinal Fleury. To conciliate the favour of the other European powers, and allay their jealousies, Charles gave his eldest daughter in marriage to the Duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian grandeur.

Charles departed this life in 1740; when a formidable opposition instantly started up to overturn the Pragmatic Sanction, the establishment of which had been the principal object of his reign. His Prussian Majesty, as yet a novice in the art of war, entered Silesia, which he alledged had been wrongfully wrested from his family; and, with irresistible fury, carried all before him. The King of Spain and the Elector of Bavaria instituted claims diametrically opposite to the intention of the Pragmatic Sanction; and in this they were seconded by France, though these different powers had individually guaranteed it. After an interregnum of considerable duration, the Imperial throne was at last filled by the Elector of Bavaria, in 1742, who thereupon assumed the title of Charles VII.

The elevation of this prince to the throne proved the source of innumerable calamities to the Empire. France poured her armies into Bohemia, where they took possession of Prague; while the Queen of Hungary was obliged to purchase peace of his Prussian Majesty, by ceding, in formal and solemn treaty, the most valuable part of the Dutchy of Silesia to him and his heirs for ever. The youth, beauty, and misfortunes of this princess, and the magnanimity with which she bore up under the pressure of accumulated losses, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose protection she had thrown herself and her little son; and though this nation had always been remarkable for a disaffection to the Austrian family, they nevertheless unanimously declared in her favour.

George II. supported her cause with the utmost firmness; and, at the head of an English army, gained the battle of Dettingen in 1743, while her own generals drove the French out of Bohemia. At this time Charles VII. was compleatly wretched on the Imperial throne, and would have listened to almost any terms from the Hungarian Queen; but, contrary

trary to the advice of her sincerest friends, she haughtily and impolitically rejected every overture of accommodation: which obstinacy furnished the King of Prussia with a pretext to invade Bohemia, in support of the Imperial dignity; but though he made himself master of Prague, and subdued almost the whole kingdom, being unsupported by his allies the French, he abandoned all his conquests, and retired into Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the Queen of Hungary, who entered into an accommodation with the Emperor, that she might recover Silesia. In a short time after this, his Imperial Majesty paid the debt of nature; and the Duke of Lorraine, then Grand Duke of Tuscany, and consort to the Queen of Hungary, after surmounting some difficulties, was raised to the Imperial throne.

The military operations of the Empress Queen against his Prussian Majesty were considerably retarded by the bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy. The King of Prussia defeated Prince Charles of Lorraine; and his Britannic Majesty, being disgusted with the conduct of the Empress Queen, thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian Majesty, under colour of discovering a secret convention which had been entered into by the Empire, Russia, and Poland, to strip him of his hereditary dominions, suddenly collecting an army, drove the King of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden, the capital of his electorate. The war likewise was carried on, to the discredit and loss of the Austrians and Dutch, in the Low Countries; till the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, gave a temporary repose to the belligerent powers. The effects of this treaty were but just beginning to become perceptible, when the jealousy of his Prussian Majesty was revived by the Empress Queen's admitting Russian troops into Germany; against which he protested, as did his Britannic Majesty against the reception of French supplies. A coincidence in opinion on these two grand principles was the means of obviating all former disputes between the Prussian and British crowns, and the parliament of the latter agreed to pay an annual subsidy of six hundred and seventy thousand pounds to the former during the continuance of the war.

These new alliances being formed, the war broke out in Germany with greater fury and more destructive rage than ever. The Prussian armies over-run Saxony like a torrent; and, carrying all before them, compelled the Elector of Saxony to take shelter in his regal dominions. His Prussian Majesty, upon this, was put to the ban of the empire, and foes were pouring on him from every quarter: but, with the genuine spirit of heroism, he rose superior to opposition; and, though victor and vanquished by turns, with the assistance of his allies, he still supported his native character of bravery and policy, in which he must be confessed to be unrivalled in his age.

Brevity obliges us to omit many capital transactions between the French, who were driven out of Hanover; and the English, or their allies. Battles were fought after battles, without any decisive effect; and new levies were continually brought forward by the belligerent powers, sufficient to repair their heaviest losses. The effusion of human blood
really

really was prodigious, and the situation of the empire in general wretched beyond conception.

The Russians, who had leagued with the Empress Queen, possessed themselves of all the kingdom of Prussia, and were laying siege to Colberg, the only port belonging to his Prussian Majesty on the Baltic; while an army of 100,000 men, under General Soltikoff, was advancing to Silesia. His Prussian Majesty, who had hitherto nobly stood his ground, was now given up for lost by his most sanguine admirers: however, he acted for some time with a courage and resolution bordering on despair; but was at last totally defeated by the Russians near Frankfort, with the loss of 20,000 of his best men. He now became the tennis-ball of Fortune; and succeeding defeats seemed to render his final ruin inevitable, every avenue to peace being shut up. Berlin had been taken, and the inhabitants laid under heavy contributions. However, towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the Imperialists in one of the warmest actions he had ever fought. But still this favourable turn was not attended with effects of any permanent consequence to his interest: new reinforcements were every day arriving; and his final destruction was on the brink of being accomplished, when his most formidable enemy, the Empress of Russia, died in 1762, and let in a gleam of hope.

George II. had finished his earthly career, in the zenith of victory and of glory, in 1760, and the British ministry under his successor seemed anxious to bring the war to an honourable conclusion. The new Emperor of Russia immediately recalled his armies, and lessened the number of the Prussian enemies: however, that monarch was so reduced by a succession of losses, that the Empress Queen would probably have annihilated the House of Brandenburg, had not the other German princes cautiously forborne to lend their assistance. At first the Empress Queen rejected with disdain all terms of accommodation; but the visible backwardness of her generals to execute her orders, and some new successes obtained by his Prussian Majesty, induced her to accede to an armistice, which was soon followed by a treaty of peace, concluded at Hubertsburg, which secured Silesia in the possession of Prussia.

The Grand Duke of Tuscany, and consort of the Empress Queen, died in 1765, having enjoyed the pleasure of seeing his son Joseph elected King of the Romans the year before, who now succeeded him in the empire. This monarch, immediately on his accession, discovered numerous proofs of wisdom superior to his years. With a disposition strongly attached to the arts of peace, he has nevertheless been vigilant and active on the appearance of any commotion among the neighbouring powers which might affect the splendor of his empire. He has availed himself of every opportunity that could contribute to his own glory, and secure the happiness of his subjects. By travel, he has improved an understanding naturally penetrating and strong; and by humbling himself to take cognizance of the minutest affairs a monarch ought to be acquainted with, he has laid the most solid foundation for everlasting fame: and while the hero only enjoys the triumph of an hour, the wisdom, policy, and benevolence of Joseph I. will be as much the object of admiration to future ages, as they are now of veneration and esteem, not only to his own subjects, but to surrounding nations.

C H A P. VII.

BOHEMIA.

THE kingdom of Bohemia, taken in a general sense, comprehends Bohemia Proper, Silesia, and Moravia; and is bounded by Saxony and Brandenburg on the north, by Poland and Hungary on the east, by Austria and Bavaria on the south, and by the Palatine and Bavaria on the west: extending from 48 to 52 degrees north latitude, and from 12 to 19 east longitude; being about three hundred miles in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth.

Bohemia is said to be derived from a corruption of Bohmen; that is, the country of the Boii, it's ancient inhabitants, a Celtic tribe which retired into the Hercynian Forest, to avoid the Roman yoke; and, if considered in a limited sense, is on all sides surrounded by lofty mountains, and covered with almost impervious woods: from which last-mentioned circumstance the air is generally held to be impure and unwholesome, compared with that of the rest of Germany; though the soil, where cultivation is regarded, does not yield in fertility to any part of the empire.

This kingdom is blessed with very valuable mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre; and produces a variety of precious stones, which for lustre and beauty are hardly to be distinguished from the finest oriental gems.

This country, notwithstanding it's being in a great measure over-run with woods, is so very fertile, that it not only produces corn enough for it's internal consumption, but even considerable quantities for exportation. The fruits are exquisitely delicious, and amazingly plentiful.

It is impossible to form an exact estimate of the present population of Bohemia. About a century and a half ago, it was computed to contain about three millions of inhabitants; but we may reasonably conclude that this number has since been diminished. In their persons, habits, and manners, the Bohemians have but few peculiarities to distinguish them from the Germans: however, it must be observed, that among this people there is no middle rank; every lord exercising supreme jurisdiction, and every tenant being deemed a vassal and slave.

Pilfering and superstition are the characteristics of the lower ranks, as tyranny and pride are of the higher. Neither the study of arts nor arms flourishes at present among them; though they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid advocates for civil and religious liberty: in confirmation of which, it will be sufficient to mention the early introduction of the reformed religion into this country, when it was scarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power; and their generous struggles for independence on a variety of occasions. But these qualities exist no more: crushed by the iron rod of power, and subjected to despotism and tyranny, every generous virtue is in a manner extinct, and a certain degree of torpor confines the exertions of the soul.

Popery is the established religion of the Bohemians, and it's observance is enforced with

no small degree of rigour: nevertheless, many of the Moravians have invented and embraced a visionary and absurd species of Protestantism, which they propagate by their missionaries through all parts of the globe; some of whom have had the address to procure a considerable number of followers in Great Britain; and an act of the British legislature has been passed, allowing them to settle in our Plantations.

Prague is the only Bohemian archiepiscopal see; the archbishop of which is Legate of the See of Rome, a Prince of the Roman Empire, Primate of the Kingdom, and perpetual Chancellor of the University of Prague; having under him the bishops of Koninggratz, Breslau, and Olmutz.

Literature is but little known or attended to in this country. The native language is a dialect of the Sclavonic, harsh and dissonant in the extreme: however, the German tongue is generally understood and used.

With regard to the government, it is now hereditary, but was formerly elective; though the States generally shewed a predilection to the family of the deceased king, if any one of them was judged worthy of sovereignty. The States are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and the representatives of towns; who still exhibit some traits of the original constitution, though restricted from the exercise of their former power. No exact calculation can be made of the annual revenues of Bohemia, their amount depending on the sum the sovereign is pleased to exact from the States assembled at Prague; however, they are seldom less than 600,000*l.* sterling a year.

The Bohemian arms are, Argent, a Lion Gules, the tail moved and passed in Saltier; crowned, languid, and armed, Or.

Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the most beautiful and magnificent cities in Europe; it is particularly famous for its bridge over the Moldaw, which at this place is eight hundred paces broad, though shallow and unnavigable. This bridge was built by Charles IV. in 1537, and unites the two parts of the city, extending eighteen hundred and fifty feet in length, of a breadth sufficient for three carriages to pass abreast, defended by a strong tower at each end, and beautified with the statues of saints arranged on each side. The circumference of the city is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, could never compleatly invest it; for which reason it is capable of making a vigorous defence in case of a regular attack, though the fortifications are by no means impregnable. The inhabitants, however, are thought not to be proportionate to its magnitude, being calculated to amount to no more than 100,000 of every sect and denomination. Nor is the commerce of Prague very considerable; for, exclusive of the arts and handicraft trades, the principal means for subsistence are drawn from the brewing of beer.

Prague comprehends three towns, the Old, the New, and the Little Town; the houses in which are entirely erected of stone, and generally three stories high. The streets are spacious and airy, and the public structures numerous and magnificent; those dedicated to religion amount to ninety and upwards; besides nearly forty cloisters. In Old Prague the Jesuits have one of the most magnificent colleges belonging to that order, that of Goa only excepted: it is known by the name of Collegium Clementinum, so called from the adjoining church of St. Clement; and in it two hundred and ten priests of this order constantly reside.

reside. The schools of the Jesuits are extremely flourishing, and the number of students in the twelve classes of the Clementine College generally amount to about eighteen hundred. The College Library is extremely curious, and well filled with valuable books and manuscripts. The mathematical cabinet erected here contains a moving armillary sphere, according to the Tychean system; with a large sextant made by that eminent astronomer and mathematician. In the church stands the monument of Tycho Brahe, charged with his usual motto, in large characters—*Esse potius quam haberi*; that is—‘To be, rather than seem to be;’ under which is a long inscription, enumerating his various and great discoveries. Tycho himself is represented in basso-relievo, dressed in armour, with a long sword by his side, and a band and whiskers; his right-hand rests on a celestial sphere over his armorial bearing, and on his left is his helmet.

The cathedral, dedicated to St. Vitus, stands on the Castle Hill, and is very rich in its plate, altar, furniture, and relics; containing, among other valuable ornaments, a crucifix of Hungarian virgin-gold, weighing ten thousand ducats. Some romantic writers have described the walls of St. Wenceslaus’s Chapel, in this structure, as entirely covered with jasper, amethysts, and carnelians: but though every thing in that place is splendid to the last degree, the whole falls infinitely short of this exaggerated account.

Several other religious structures in this city are remarkably splendid, and contain a vast variety of valuable oblations and relics. In an edifice built in imitation of the Casa Santa at Loretto, is a pyx set with pearls of the size of an acorn; that in the centre, shaped like a heart, being of the size of a common walnut; and another is enriched with six thousand six hundred and sixty-six diamonds, formed so as to represent the Sun. This beautiful piece of workmanship is said to have cost two hundred thousand guilders, and the artist to have been employed ten years before it’s completion.

A white tower in this city serves for a state prison; and in one of the rooms was formerly a curious machine, in the shape of a woman, which, on the approach of any person, would embrace him in it’s arms, and instantly break his back, ribs, and arms; the punishment usually inflicted on state delinquents.

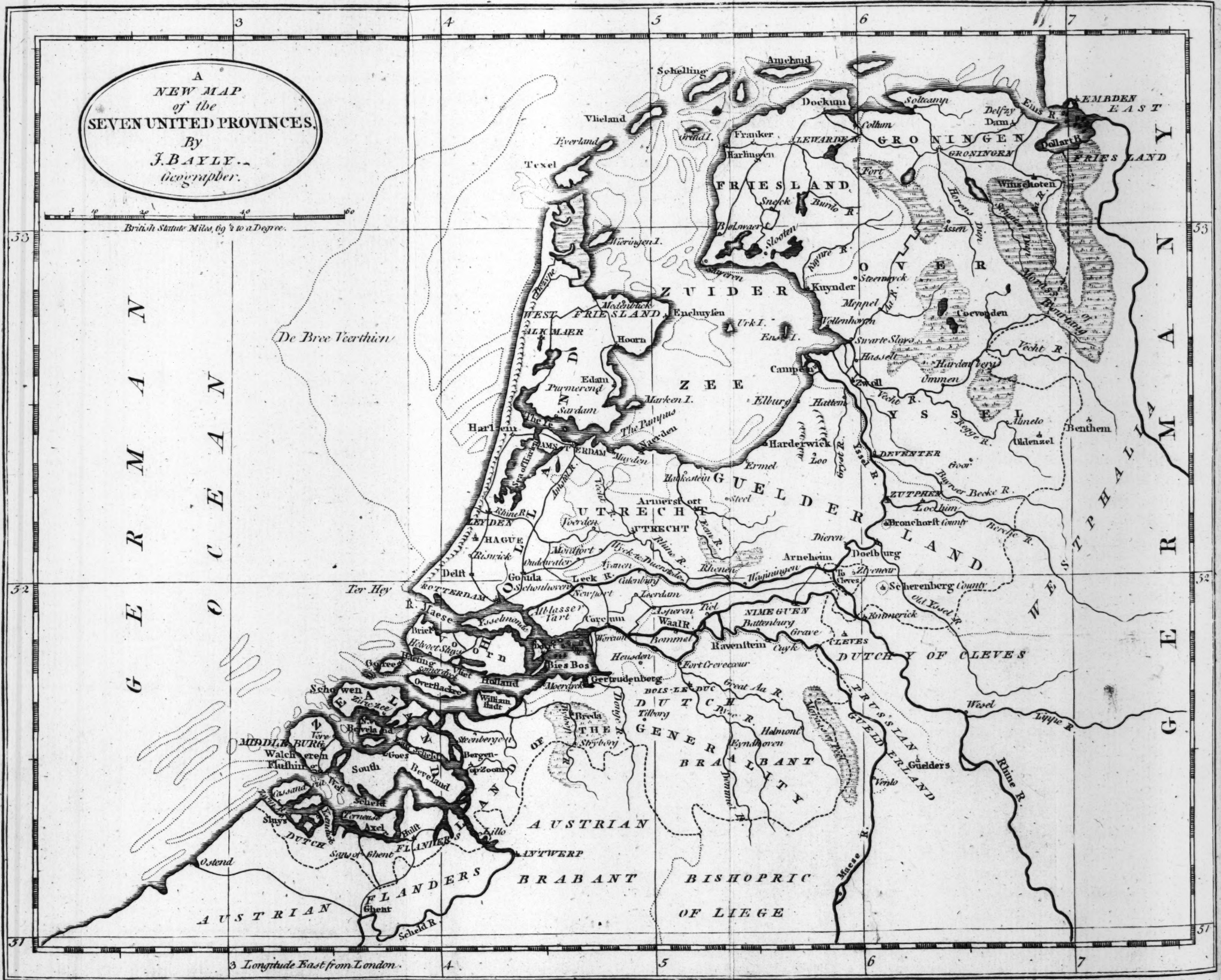
Prague has frequently experienced the calamities of war, and submitted to different conquerors. Trade being much declined, the inhabitants are generally in indigent circumstances, and their accommodations but mean: however, many people of quality make it their residence; who being confined by the narrowness of their fortunes from making any considerable figure at Vienna, wisely withdraw from temptation, and adapt their expences to their incomes.

Olmütz, the capital of Moravia, and the residence of a bishop, is a place of considerable strength, being wholly surrounded by the River Mant. This town is populous and well-built, and contains twenty-six churches, five chapels, seven monasteries, two nunneries, a college of Jesuits, an university, a riding-academy, several hospitals, and an orphan-house. The fortifications are regular and strong; and the manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder, are all pretty flourishing.

The ancient history of Bohemia presents us with few circumstances worthy of record. The Bohemian nobility, as before observed, used to elect their own princes, though sometimes

A
NEW MAP
of the
SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.
By
J. BAYLE,
Geographer.

British Statute Miles, by 2 to a Degree.



times the emperors of Germany imposed a king upon them, and at last usurped the throne themselves. In 1414, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, were condemned to be burnt by the council of Constance, though they carried with them the Emperor of Germany's protection; and this dreadful sentence was accordingly put in execution. This diabolical act gave rise to a violent insurrection in Bohemia: the citizens of Prague threw the Emperor's officers out of the windows of the Council-chamber; and the illustrious Zisca, collecting an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the Imperialists in several engagements, and at last drove them entirely out of the kingdom. However, the disagreement of the Hussites among themselves enabled the Emperor to retain possession of this country, though another attempt was made to exonerate themselves from the Imperial yoke by electing a Protestant king, in the person of the Prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The fate of this prince is well known: he was stripped not only of the kingdom he aspired to, but also of his electoral dominions; and, being driven from his native country, was forced to depend on the court of England for subsistence. The Bohemians have ever since continued subject to the House of Austria; and, as the Imperial family have prudently forbore to treat them with severity, this nation, though not much attached to their interests, has not lately manifested its disgust by recurring to open resistance.

C H A P. VIII.

HOLLAND.

THE general name of Holland is usually given to the Seven United Provinces, on account of its being the largest and most opulent of them all; however, they are also known by the name of Netherlands, or Low Countries, unquestionably so called from the lowness of their situation.

Under the title of Netherlands, or *Les Pais Bas* of the French, are comprehended, in a general sense, seventeen provinces; the seven most northerly obtaining the name of the United Provinces, of which we are to treat in this place; and the other ten are called Flanders, or the Austrian and French Netherlands.

The United Provinces, notwithstanding the distinguished figure they have made, and still continue to make, in the annals of Europe, are no more than an hundred and fifty miles in length, and an hundred in breadth; extending from 51 to 54 degrees north latitude, and from 3 to 7 degrees east longitude. These provinces lie opposite to England, at the distance of ninety miles on the east side of the Channel; and are only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several navigable rivers, and what the indefatigable industry of the inhabitants has gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised, and still support at an incredible expence. The air is consequently foggy and gross, until

purified by the brumal frosts; when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and all the harbours are frozen up.

The principal rivers in the United Provinces are, the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe; the Maese; the Scheld; and the Vecht. These are joined in their courses by a number of small streams and canals. But there are few good harbours in this country; the most commodious, however, are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetsluys, and Flushing. Amsterdam, indeed, is furnished with one of the most capacious and safest ports in Europe, but is incommoded by a bar at the entrance, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened: this is a prodigious obstruction to the dispatch of trade.

The soil is naturally unpropitious to vegetation, as well as to animal life; but, by the industry of the inhabitants in cutting canals, and draining the marshy lands, considerable tracts are rendered fit for pasturage, and even some for tillage: however, this country, in its most improved state, is far from affording a sufficient support for its inhabitants; but the defect is so amply supplied by trade and navigation, that with the grain imported they not only brew excellent beer, and distil brandy and other spirits for their own consumption, but also export prodigious quantities of each. However, with all the advantages of artificial plenty, cheapness, commerce, and convenience, Holland is by no means a desirable country to live in, particularly for foreigners. Neither mountains, rising grounds, streams, nor plantations, present themselves to relieve the eye; but, on the contrary, a dull uniformity of prospect every where prevails; and the whole face of the country, when viewed from a lofty tower or steeple, exhibits the appearance of one continuous marsh drained at certain intervals by innumerable ditches; and in the summer season, many of the canals, which in this country serve as high roads, are no better than offensive stagnated waters, emitting a putrid effluvia inimical to health in a very high degree.

Yet it must be confessed, that some of the meadows are both beautiful and fertile; fattening a vast number of lean Danish and German cattle, of whose milk some of the most excellent butter and cheese of any in Europe are made. The country likewise produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber, and almost all the luxuries, and even necessities of life, are obliged to be imported.

The wool of the Dutch sheep is highly valued; and the breed of horses and horned cattle is larger sized in this than in any other European nation.

With regard to the ornithology of this country, it is little different from our own; only it may be observed, that storks build and hatch in the chimnies; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, and return again in February.

The river-fish, in size and species, are nearly the same as those common to Great Britain; but the sea-fish are generally larger, owing perhaps to a greater depth of water.

Though herrings never visit this coast, the Dutch fisheries in the northern seas are extremely productive and beneficial; some years, no fewer than fifteen hundred vessels have sailed from the different parts of the United Provinces for the herring-fishery, each vessel capable of carrying from twenty-five to thirty lasts; which, one year with another, may be estimated at an hundred and twenty guilders. But though the estimates of the profits arising

arising from the herring-fishery differ, as the profits themselves really do very widely; yet it is computed that, in a favourable season, the neat gain to the proprietors of the busses, after all deductions, amounts to two millions of Holland guilders; a sum which might have been secured to the natives of Great Britain, had the Dutch been uniformly and resolutely denied the privilege of fishing on our coasts; a restriction which sound policy would certainly have deemed essential to our national interests.

Notwithstanding its uninviting aspect, perhaps no country in the world, of the same extent, is better peopled than Holland. It contains, according to the most authentic accounts, an hundred and thirteen cities and towns; fourteen hundred villages; and, on a moderate calculation, about two millions of inhabitants, exclusive of the twenty-five towns, and the inhabitants of what is called the Lands of the Generalité, or conquered countries, and several towns in other parts of the Netherlands.

The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch, seem conformed to their situation, and to originate from their natural wants. Their country, necessarily preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the numerous artificial drains, with which it is intersected, require a constant attention to keep them in repair. Hence they are robust in their constitutions, and indefatigable in their application to whatever business they engage in. Even their natural commodities (their butter and their cheese) are produced by an unvaried attention; and their principal food is earned out of the sea by means of their fisheries, except the farinaceous part, which requires the toil of navigation to procure. Thus, to support life, they are obliged to labour; and their minds being uncorrupted by native luxuries, they have few temptations to indolence and effeminacy.

The air and temperature of the climate incline them to be phlegmatic and slow in their dispositions; yet they are irascible to a high degree, especially when heated with liquor.

Money being the only thing that can render life comfortable in this country, every consideration is sacrificed to its attainment; love and friendship generally vanish before its superior fascination; and perhaps the very virtues of these people originate rather from the coldness of their constitutions, than their heart-felt regard to religious and moral obligations. They are, however, quiet neighbours, and peaceable subjects, unless their interest is materially affected; on which occasions the valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, as has been more than once manifested in their sea-fights with England and France.

The boors, though slow of apprehension, are easily governed by fair means; the seamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and ill-bred race of men, apparently destitute of public spirit, or social affection; and the trading people are generally honest in their dealings, and averse to wranglings and disputations in making their bargains. Smoking tobacco is the delight of the young and old of both sexes; and, as their thoughts are generally busied on the accumulation of money, an unfocial disposition is painted in their very features. But though the lower ranks, when inebriated, are incapable of every species of brutality; and though they have been known to exercise the most horrid barbarities abroad, when compelled by interest, where they deemed themselves secure from detection; yet, in their general behaviour, the Dutch are quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which furnishes

nishes but few instances of murder, rapine, or other enormities. As to the habitual addiction to drinking charged upon both sexes, it may in a great measure be ascribed to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem more circumscribed in this than in any other country, that of avarice alone excepted. The natural dispositions of the *Hollanders* do not appear to be airy enough for joy or the brilliant sallies of wit, nor warm enough for the enthusiastic emotions of love: so that the softer passions never flourish here; and love itself is little more than a mechanical affection, inspired by interest, convenience, and habit; the young men not being ashamed to own, and even to boast, that they are incapable of feeling its effects.

But though we in vain search for the warm displays of social affection, or the brilliant effects of genius, in whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, among the *Dutch*, they are certainly the most expert of any nation on earth; uniting to a consummate knowledge of procuring wealth, the no less necessary science of preserving it. However slender his income, every man lives within its bounds: nor is it ever imagined by this frugal people, that the common course of expence should equal the revenue; it being one of their inbred maxims, that he who spends his intire income, has lived that year in vain; the bare report of which brings a man as much discredit among his neighbours as the most vicious excesses would do in other countries. No country, therefore, can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants whose lot, if not affluence, is yet above indigence; and where fewer failures and bankruptcies occur.

In all these leading characteristics the women exactly resemble the men, especially in their natural indifference as to the warmer passions. However, a change of manners appears to be rapidly effecting; the rich traders and mechanics seem now ambitious of assimilating their modes of life to those of the French and English; and their nobility, and high magistrates, who have retired from the cares of office and the avocations of trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipage.

The amusements of the *Hollanders* are not very dissimilar to those of the English. They are the best skaters on the ice of any people in the world; and it is astonishing to see the crowds which cover the ice during a hard frost, and the dexterity of both the men and women (the latter often carrying a basket of eggs, or other country ware, upon their heads, to market) in darting along on the frozen element with inconceivable velocity.

The *Dutch* were formerly noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, plain mobbs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. But these peculiarities of dress are now only perceptible among the lower ranks, and more particularly among the seafaring people.

Calvinism is the established religion of the country; none but people of that persuasion being admitted into any office or post in the government, excepting the army: nevertheless, all religions and sects are tolerated, and allowed their respective meetings and assemblies for public worship; among which are a considerable number of Lutherans, Papists, Baptists, Moravians, and Jews.

The native language of this country is Low Dutch, a corrupted dialect of the German,
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and even unintelligible to those who understand the German tongue or High Dutch; however, people of fashion are capable of conversing in the French language, and many of them in English.

With respect to learned men, Holland has produced Erasmus and Grotius, who are an honour to literature itself. Boerhaave deservedly stands at the head of medicine; and Grævius and Burmann are celebrated for their classical illustrations.

Haerlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans; and the magistrates still preserve two copies of a book printed by Koster in 1440, called *Speculum Salvationis*, pretended to be one of the first productions of the press. The most elegant editions of the classics unquestionably came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. No nation has made a greater figure in controversial divinity than Holland; which, by insinuating itself into the state, had almost proved fatal to the government. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and modern times have produced a Van Haaren not entirely destitute of poetical abilities, whose poems in favour of liberty have gained celebrity, more from the singularity of their author's being a Dutchman, than from their intrinsic merit. But though we readily admit that Holland has produced some men of real and elevated genius, in general the Dutch publications are mechanical and dull, and principally originate from their employments in universities, in church and state.

In the fine arts, the Dutch have chiefly distinguished themselves in painting, though they are not destitute of skilful statuary. They have five universities; namely, Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Francken; two gymnasiums, one at Amsterdam, and another at Deventer; besides an academy of sciences at Haerlem; and several famous grammar-schools in different places.

Among the national peculiarities of this people, their mode of travelling from town to town is not the least remarkable; being performed in covered boats, called *treckschuits*, dragged along the canals by horses, on a slow uniform trot; so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though dull and unpleasant to strangers, is both convenient and cheap; and by means of these canals, not only an extensive inland commerce is carried on, but, by their communication with the Rhine and other navigable rivers, the productions of the whole earth are likewise conveyed, at a small expence, into various parts of Germany, and the French and Austrian Netherlands.

A *treckschuit*, or passage-boat, is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the former for the accommodation of gentlemen and ladies, and the latter for the common people; who, during their passage, smoke, drink, read, or converse, without interruption.

In the vicinity of great cities, these canals display the amazing effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Passengers and goods are continually going and returning; and their banks, for miles together, are lined with elegant country-houses, situated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, and adorned with figures, busts, statues, temples,

and other embellishments of art, down to the water's edge. Having no objects of amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, families, in fine weather, spend a great part of their time in their little pleasure-houses, smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, as they glide along, to whom they in general appear complaisant and polite.

To enumerate all the articles of Dutch traffic, would be to write a history of trade itself, as there is scarcely a manufacture they do not carry on, or a state with which they are not connected in some way of commerce. In the prosecution of trade, they are assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and, above all, by their commodious water-carriage, by means of canals, which gives them a decided advantage over every nation of Europe. Indeed, the United Provinces may be considered as the grand magazine of Europe; and sometimes goods may be purchased there more reasonably than in the respective countries where they are produced.

The Dutch East India Company, incorporated in 1602, have monopolized the rich oriental spices for more than an hundred years, and form the most opulent and powerful commercial republic in the world. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which, for splendour, opulence, and commerce, exceeds every other in Asia. The magnificence of the viceroys, who reside here, is infinitely superior to that of the Stadtholders; and it is said that the Dutch subjects in Batavia hardly acknowledge any dependence on the parent country.

Besides Batavia, which is the grand emporium of oriental commerce, the Dutch have various other valuable establishments in India; but none more selubrious and convenient than that of the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, the grand rendezvous of ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound. In short, such is the value and extent of their territorial acquisitions in India, that when Louis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch certainly meditated, in case of being vanquished, to ship themselves off to their oriental settlements, to avoid the horrors of a French government.

Exclusive of their fisheries, already mentioned, and their extensive foreign traffic, the Dutch carry on a variety of domestic trades and manufactures, such as delft-ware, pottery, toys, and tobacco-pipes; their manufactures of oil, starch, hemp, fine paper, fine linen and table damasks, woollen, cotton, and silk, are likewise extremely flourishing: but it is greatly doubted whether their commerce and navigation are at present in the same flourishing state as at the beginning of the present century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general industry of the inhabitants. Certain, however, it is, that the late unfortunate war with Great Britain, into which they were plunged by the prevalence of French politics, and their own unprincipled avarice, will be long and severely felt in its effects, and perhaps never entirely overcome.

Viewed in a political light, the Seven United Provinces subsist in a common confederacy: yet each province has an internal government or constitution, independent of the other; and this government is called the states of that province, the delegates from which form the States General, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy is vested. But though a province may send two or more delegates, such province has no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution can have the effect of a law,

it must be submitted to and approved by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This tedious formality, which can only be set aside in times of sudden danger or emergency, is often attended with disagreeable consequences, especially as unanimity in passing resolutions is required among the states of every particular province.

Not only every province, but the principal cities and nobles, possess the privilege of sending deputies to the States General. Thus the number of the representatives is very considerable, and all are maintained at the expence of their respective constituents; the deputies of Holland being allowed four, and those of the other states six florins per day.

The States General, or the collective representatives of the United Provinces, though their power is limited, either tacitly or expressly, by this instruction, 'not to suffer the least wound to be given to the sovereignty of that province which deputed them,' nevertheless assume the right of making peace and war in their own name, and likewise appoint and receive ambassadors and other public ministers. The officers of the army and navy take an oath of fidelity to them; and some of their members, or those of the council of state, accompany the army in it's motions, sit in the council of war, and regulate it's operations.

Thus the States General appear at first view to be sovereign and independent lords of the country; but, in general, they are only deputed for a limited number of years; and, though invested with power to deliberate on the most important affairs, they cannot conclude any affair of importance without previously communicating it to their respective provinces, and receiving their express consent, as has been already observed. This renders their resolutions extremely tedious, and often tires the patience of those powers who are negotiating with them. But though this dilatory method of procedure is attended with many inconveniences, it has some advantages; since it affords leisure for caution and mature deliberation, and is sometimes an unexceptionable pretence for protracting business, in order to see the consequence of events.

The assembly of the States General is always held at the Hague, without any prorogation; and the provinces preside weekly in their turn, beginning with Guelderland, which had the original precedency; then Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Overijssel, and Groningen. The person first named in the instrument of deputation from his province is president for the week; in consequence of which he proposes the subject of debate, collects the votes of the assembly, dictates to the register, and afterwards signs the resolution.

At the head of the States General may be ranked the Stadtholder, who is Hereditary Governor-general, Captain-general, and Grand Admiral of the Seven United Provinces; notwithstanding which, his power is extremely limited by the constitution, being sworn to obey the States General, and to regulate his public conduct by their decisions. However, he is allowed the privilege of pardoning criminals, and of choosing the magistrates of cities upon a double nomination of their respective senates, with several other important prerogatives. His rank and property give him a considerable influence over the States; and though he has no voice in their assembly, nor any title attached to royalty, yet he possesses more real power than some European monarchs.

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The Council of State consists likewise of deputies from the several provinces; but its constitution is different from that of the States General, being composed of twelve persons, whereof Guelderland sends two, Holland three, Zealand two, Friesland one, Overijssel one, and Groningen one. These deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but personally; and their principal business is to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters intended to fall under the cognizance of the States General.

Subordinate to these two bodies is the Chamber of Accounts, which is likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The Admiralty possesses a separate jurisdiction; and the executive part of their power is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland.

The people in this country have no interest in the election of representatives or magistrates; so that the United Provinces cannot be said with any propriety to be under a mixed government, or an union of the aristocratical and democratical powers.

The title assumed by the States is that of High and Mighty Lords, or the Lords the States General of the United Netherlands; and, in public addresses, they are styled their High Mightinesses.

The ensigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces are, Or, a Lion, Gules, holding a Cutlass with one paw, and with the other a bundle of Seven Arrows close bound together, in allusion to the Seven Confederate Provinces; with the subsequent motto—'Concordia Res parvæ crescunt.'

With regard to the administration of justice, the proceedings of the several courts are regulated by the particular laws of the respective towns and provinces where the action lies, the edicts of the States, and the civil law. Each province is furnished with its distinct tribunal, to which, except in criminal cases, appeals lie from the petty and county courts; and if the party cast thinks himself aggrieved, he may apply to the States of the province, who nominate certain persons, learned in the laws and customs of that province, to revise the decree, and pass a final decision; and it is justly maintained, that equity is no where more impartially observed than in the United Provinces.

The public revenues arise from a kind of general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth money; the whole amounting to the annual sum of about two millions and a half sterling, of which the province of Holland contributes more than one half. Indeed, the taxes are so heavy and numerous, that, as a certain ingenious author hath with reason asserted, hardly one thing, except the air they breathe, has escaped taxation. However, for the encouragement and extension of commerce, the duties on goods and merchandize are extremely low.

The provinces of Holland have hitherto been in a very flourishing condition; and not only capable of answering the exigences of their own government, but likewise of lending money to most of the other European powers.

The United Provinces, from their situation, require a considerable military force for their defence; notwithstanding which, their army has never been put on a respectable footing

footing. Every province maintains a certain number of troops; but Germans and Swiss mercenaries are occasionally called in to augment their armies. The peace establishment seldom exceeds thirty thousand men, eighteen thousand of whom serve in garrisons; but, in time of war, by means of foreign supplies, the number is proportioned to the supposed exigency. The chief command of the army is vested in the Stadtholder, as captain-general; but the executive part, especially in time of war, is filled by the field-marshal general.

The naval force of the Republic was formerly extremely respectable; and in several wars the Dutch have displayed the utmost bravery, joined with a consummate knowledge of maritime affairs: but, if we may judge from their behaviour in the recent contest, their military enthusiasm is considerably damped by a long habitude to commercial concerns; a proof that the arts of peace and war are naturally unpropitious to each other.

We now proceed to a more particular account of the different provinces, and of the principal places they severally contain.

The province of Guelderland has the Zuyder Sea and Overysse for its boundaries on the north; the bishopric of Munster, and the dutchy of Cleve, on the east; the Maese, on the south; and Utrecht and Holland on the west. The air of this province is esteemed the best of any in the Republic; and the soil is pretty fertile, producing corn, apples, and pears, in great abundance, and affording extensive tracts of excellent pasturage. The whole province, containing twenty-two towns and two boroughs, is divided into three districts, Nimeguen, Zutphen, and Arnheim; each of which has its own particular states, composed of the nobility and the deputies of towns. The number of nobility admitted into the legislative power is indeterminate; so also is the number of deputies which every town may send, though it is restricted to a single vote.

Nimeguen, the capital of a district, is built on several little eminences along the River Waal, over which it has a bridge of boats, in 51 degrees 52 minutes north latitude, and in 5 degrees 56 minutes east longitude. Being a barrier town towards the east, the fortifications are strong; but the great extent of the outworks requires a very numerous garrison for its defence.

To the eastward of the city, and within the walls, stands an old burg, or castle, called the Falkenhof, said to have been built by Charlemagne; and the burgrave, its possessor, is one of the most considerable nobles in Guelderland.

In 1678, the celebrated treaty of Nimeguen was concluded at this place; and in 1702, it had nearly fallen into the hands of the French under Marshal Boufflers, but was rescued by the Dutch general, the Earl of Athlone. It carries on a valuable trade with the dutchy of Cleve; and exports considerable quantities of a white beer, for the brewing of which it is peculiarly famous.

Zutphen, the capital of the second district of Guelderland, stands on the banks of the Yssel; which here uniting its stream with the Berkel, divides the town into two parts, the Old and the New. The former is much the largest; both, however, have extensive suburbs, which consisting principally of pleasure-houses, have been by degrees included within the circuit of the walls. This town is extremely well fortified, except in those quarters where the country may be easily flooded by means of the Berkel. Within the walls are

several pleasant walks, of which the ramparts themselves, being planted with trees, form one of the most agreeable.

Zutphen is also famous for belonging to the Hanseatic Confederacy; but its trade is by no means very considerable at present.

Arnheim, the capital of the third district, stands on the banks of the Rhine, at a small distance from the place where that river and the Yssel divide their streams. Over the former of these rivers is a bridge of boats; and before the Rhine-gate is a commodious harbour of a quadrangular form. The fortifications of Arnheim are strong, and of great extent, having received several considerable additions in 1702, under the direction of that able engineer General Coehorn. The walls are delightfully planted with lime-trees, which afford a most charming walk. The town is in general well-built; and in an ancient palace within the walls, the Dukes of Guelderland formerly, and after them the Stadtholders of this province, used to reside. In the great church dedicated to St. Eusebius are the monuments of several counts and dukes of Guelderland; but the other religious edifices contain nothing worth notice.

Arnheim was taken from the Spaniards in 1585; and, about a century afterwards, falling into the hands of the French, suffered considerably before it was recovered.

Holland, the largest of the United Provinces, is bounded on the south by Brabant; and on the east, west, and north, by the provinces of Guelderland and Utrecht, the Zuyder Sea, and the North Sea. The situation is in general extremely low; in some places even beneath the level of the sea, from which it is secured by dykes and dams, and intersected by innumerable ditches and canals, through which the water is carried off at the time of ebb.

The air of Holland is foggy, and consequently unhealthy; but the soil, from the effects of cultivation, is amazingly fertile. It is equally populous, the number of inhabitants being computed at one million two hundred thousand. The houses in this province are chiefly erected of brick, and, for beautiful villages, and a general appearance of neatness and elegance, it is perhaps unrivalled.

This province consists of two parts, under one joint regency, called the States of Holland and West Friesland, composed of the nobility and voting towns. The number of nobility is indeterminate; but the original voting towns were restricted to six, Dort, Haerlem, Delft, Leyden, Amsterdam, and Gouda: however, William I. Prince of Orange, added twelve more; so that now there are eleven in South Holland, and seven in North Holland.

The States of Holland enjoy entire liberty of speech, and are only amenable for their actions to the town which deputed them. They have four annual conventions, in February, June, September, and November. In the three former sessions they fill up the vacant employments in their disposal, deliberate on the common affairs of the province, and determine provincial disputes; and in November they contrive ways and means for raising such supplies as have been granted by the deputies to the States General for the service of the subsequent year.

The Grand Pensionary of Holland is a person of the utmost dignity and importance, though

though he has no decisive vote; his proper office being that of proposing the subject of debate to the Assembly of the States, collecting the suffrages of the representatives, pronouncing their resolutions, dictating the terms in which they are to be registered, and keeping the register itself, and the great seal of the province. This dignified personage is elected by a majority of suffrages in the Assembly of the States: his office, however, is only of five years duration; at the expiration of which, a new election, or a confirmation of the former, must be obtained.

For the administration of justice there are two courts held at the Hague; the Court of Holland, and the High Council. Indeed, the provinces of Holland and Zealand are so strictly united, as to have but one common high-court of justice, which is composed of members chosen from each.

Among the principal cities and towns in this province, we shall particularly notice Dort, Haerlem, Leyden, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and the Hague.

Dort (in Latin, *Dordracum*) stands on an island in the Merve, formed in 1421 by a dreadful inundation, which destroyed seventy villages, and carried off about a hundred thousand inhabitants. The situation of this city is so strong by nature, that, though destitute of fortifications, it has never yet been taken. The number of houses is about four thousand; which, however, are more celebrated for their uniform neatness and elegance than for any display of architectural skill. The harbour is extremely commodious; and the trade is very considerable, particularly in grain, Rhenish and other wines, and timber.

Haerlem, or Harlem, is situated on the River Sparin, which divides it into two parts, and forms a communication for ships between Friesland and the different towns of Holland and Zealand. This city is distant from Amsterdam about fourteen miles to the west, and enjoys a communication with it and Leyden by means of two extensive canals. The houses are principally of brick, amounting to about eight thousand; few of them, however, are built in the modern taste, or possess any particular elegance. The manufactures of Haerlem are silk and linen; which, with the bleaching of thread and cloth, employ a great number of hands. Formerly, the inhabitants carried on a most astonishing trade in flowers, particularly tulips; but this vain and expensive foible, which was indulged in to the most criminal excess, is now almost extinct.

The honour of the invention of printing is strenuously claimed in favour of Lawrence Coster, a native of Haerlem; on whose house, which formerly stood near the centre of the city, was a Latin inscription, purporting that he invented printing in it about the year 1440. A statue of him was likewise erected at the public expence; and in the Town House is still preserved, in a silver case, the first book that issued from Coster's press.

Haerlem is likewise famous for the obstinate siege it sustained against the Spaniards in 1573, when the inhabitants were reduced to the most deplorable necessities; and at last, after a ten months defence, surrendered on honourable terms. But the Spaniards, incensed at their obstinacy, cruelly punished them, by a most inhuman massacre, for that valour which they ought to have respected.

Leyden (in Latin, *Lugdunum Batavorum*) is situated on the banks of the Rhine, in 52 degrees

degrees 15 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 10 minutes east longitude; being, next to Amsterdam, the largest and finest city in Holland, containing upwards of eleven thousand houses. The streets are long, broad, and regular; and the public edifices make a very handsome appearance. The University, founded in 1575 by William I. Prince of Orange, is a large and elegant structure. Its library is furnished with a vast collection of printed books; and is farther adorned with two thousand oriental manuscripts, and a large sphere, adapted to the Copernican System, which moves by clock-work. This university has likewise an anatomical theatre, an observatory, and a physic-garden; and will ever be famous for producing the immortal Boerhaave, who pursued the study of physic to its last retreat.

This city was formerly celebrated for its cloth manufactures, but which, at present, are much on the decline. However, it will always be remembered for the glorious siege it sustained against the Spaniards in 1573, who invested it with seventy-two forts. Towards the conclusion of this siege, which was carried on with unexampled obstinacy for five months, the inhabitants were reduced to the greatest extremities, and above ten thousand of them fell a sacrifice to famine and fatigue: nevertheless, their courage seemed to rise superior to their misfortunes; for, on being summoned to surrender, they made this undaunted reply—‘That they would never submit while they had one arm to eat, and another to fight.’ At length the besieged cut the main bank of the Maese and the Yssel, and thereby turned the whole country round Leyden into a sea; by which manœuvre fifteen hundred Spaniards were drowned, and the rest obliged to retreat. The anniversary of this signal deliverance is constantly observed on the third of October, as a solemn day of thanksgiving; and in the evening the siege is represented in a tragedy.

Amsterdam, the capital of Holland, and of all the United Provinces, is situated in 52 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 30 minutes east longitude, at the conflux of the Rivers Y and Amstel. Though the shallowness of the Pampers, the only passage leading to this town from the Zuyder Sea, might be supposed to render its situation but indifferent for commerce, it is nevertheless one of the greatest trading towns in Europe, and is blessed with one of the safest and most capacious harbours in the world. Its site is naturally marshy; and the buildings, which are founded on large oaken piles, furnished the facetious Erasmus with an occasion of affirming, that, in his country, many people lived on the tops of trees. In the centre of the town are a great number of navigable canals; which, while they contribute to the beauty and cleanliness of the place, are extremely beneficial for the purposes of trade: nevertheless, they have some inconveniences attending them; the principal of which is, the foetid effluvia they emit in hot and calm weather, equally obnoxious to health and pleasure.

Amsterdam is built, in a semicircular form, on the River Y; being fortified on the land side with ramparts and regular bastions, and on that side the adjacent country may be laid under water. Towards the Y, it is secured by a double row of piles drove into the river, which project several feet above its surface; however, there are several interstices for ships to pass and repass.

The gates of Amsterdam are extremely fine; particularly that of Haerlem, which is adorned

adorned on each side with columns, sculptures, and statues. The whole number of houses is calculated to amount to nearly thirty thousand; while the inhabitants are estimated at only two hundred thousand. Over the Amstel, which divides the city into two parts, is a spacious bridge, consisting of thirty-five arches, the entire length of which is six hundred and sixty feet, and the breadth seventy.

The streets are always remarkably clean; but, except those which are furnished with canals, they are incommodiously narrow: however, the mode of conveyance, both for passengers and merchandize, being generally by sledges, or coaches set on sledges, which occupy less room than wheel-carriages, this inconvenience is the less perceptible. The principal streets are beautifully lined with trees; which, added to the general neatness of the buildings, produce a most charming effect: indeed, an elegant simplicity, and an incredible attention to the very minutiae of cleanliness in domestic concerns, seem to be the ruling passions of the Dutch, next to their immoderate love of money.

Among the most celebrated structures which adorn this superb city, may be ranked the Town House, which is near three hundred feet in front, and an hundred and sixteen high, exclusive of the cupola. The expence of its erection amounted to three millions of guilders, or three hundred thousand pounds sterling, at a period when money did not possess half its present value; which will be the less surprizing, if we consider that it is founded on no fewer than thirteen thousand large piles. This magnificent fabric contains the offices and tribunals for the execution of the laws, in the several branches of the military as well as civil government. It is internally adorned with marble, jasper, sculpture, and paintings; in some of its vaults the immense treasures of the Bank of Amsterdam are deposited, in others criminals are confined, and others serve as apartments for officers of various classes. In the upper-part is an arsenal, or rather a curious collection of antique armour and weapons. The Admiralty and East India House are likewise noble and beautiful structures: On the harbour stands the arsenal and magazine for military stores; the latter of which is remarkable for a spacious reservoir on its top, capable of containing six hundred tuns of water; which, by means of leaden pipes, may be conveyed to sixteen different parts of the city.

Amsterdam contains eleven churches of Dutch Calvinists, two of French, two of English, one of Armenians, two of Lutherans, and three of Mennonites; besides a variety of edifices belonging to other sectaries of almost every description. The Papists in particular have about thirty mass-houses; and the Jews of different nations have their distinct synagogues.

It being impossible to particularize all the various humane and charitable institutions which are disseminated over this city, we shall only remark, that ample provision is made for the aged, the infirm, and the unfortunate, of every description; the effects of which benevolent policy are perceptible even in the streets, which are entirely free from mendicants, who, were they to present themselves, would be immediately conveyed to some proper receptacle, and there compelled to work, every man in his own business, proportionably to his strength and ability. One charitable foundation, however, is too remarkable to be overlooked; and to this poor persons of all nations may resort, who are gratuitously

tuitously provided with bed, board, lodging, and washing, for three days; at the expiration of which, they must remove from thence, and are prohibited from returning in less than six weeks, on pain of being severely punished.

This city, being in possession of probably more than half the entire trade of the Seven United Provinces, abounds with merchants, manufacturers, and artificers; and in no country of the world is so long credit given, or are so few confined for debt, as in Holland. Whenever any tradesman finds his affairs deranged, he immediately acquaints the magistrates with his inability to pay his creditors, and lays before them an exact account of his circumstances; when they immediately order the commissioners of bankrupts to take possession of his effects, and exempt his person from all arrests for six weeks; which time is allowed him to compound with his creditors. In the mean while the commissioners are employed in examining his books, and all letters directed to him first fall under their inspection. At the expiration of this term, should his creditors refuse to compound, and his failure appear to originate from losses and misfortunes, the commissioners are empowered to sell his effects, and make a dividend; after which the magistrates acquit and exempt him from all future claims, whether foreign or domestic; nor can any creditor prevent this equitable process, when the failure is not fraudulent.

Rotterdam, a large and populous city, is situated at the junction of the Maese and the Rotter, in 52 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, and 4 degrees 26 minutes east longitude; and, next to Amsterdam, carries on the greatest trade of any town in the United Provinces. The river here is broad, and of a sufficient depth to admit ships of a moderate burden; but if they draw above fifteen feet of water, they are obliged to take the way of Helvoetsluys to Rotterdam. The canals within the town are so deep, that the largest ships can come up to the doors of the warehouses to load and unload.

The principal public buildings are, the Bank, the East and West India Houses, the Arsenal, and the Exchange. Among the religious edifices, is an English episcopal church, whose minister has an hundred pounds sterling annually from the King of Great Britain; besides surplice-fees, which are calculated to amount to twice as much.

This city is famous for being the birth-place of Erasmus; to whose memory a fine brass statue is erected in the centre of the great bridge erected over the Maese, or, as it is there called, the Meuse.

The Hague, by far the most beautiful place in Holland, situated in a delightful country, and blessed with every combined advantage of art and nature, lies ten miles north-west of Rotterdam; and being only surrounded with a moat bordered with a walk of shady and lofty trees, is generally called a village. The streets of this charming place are spacious and airy, and the houses in general make a splendid appearance. The number of carriages, the parade of nobility, and the finery of dress, which continually present themselves to the eye, give a very different idea of life from that of the trading cities. The inhabitants are superlatively polite, when compared with the rest of the Hollanders; and, being accustomed to strangers, are perfectly easy in their manners and address.

In

In the Hague, which may be regarded in the double light of a great city and a rich rural scene, are nearly seven thousand houses, besides public edifices; many of the former are large and elegant buildings. This city being the seat of government, and consequently the residence of foreign ambassadors, envoys, and other public ministers, it contains several beautiful squares planted with trees, which form very agreeable walks.

The Stadtholders occupy the ancient palace of the Counts of Holland, which has at different periods been repaired with some very splendid additions; and in the centre of the area, between the buildings of the palace, stands the great hall in which the trophies of the Republic, in their numerous victories over various enemies, are hung up.

In the vicinity of the Hague, which is extremely delightful, lies a handsome pleasure-garden, (the Vauxhall of Holland) a place of prodigious resort in the summer season.

The province of Zealand consists wholly of islands, formed by the many outlets of the Scheld; and is bounded on the east by Brabant, on the south by Flanders, on the west by the North Sea, and on the north by Holland. The soil is fertile, and produces considerable quantities of wheat and madder; and though the air is generally esteemed thick and insalubrious by the inhabitants of the other provinces, yet no people have a more healthy appearance, nor seem to enjoy a more confirmed state of constitutional soundness, than the natives of this province.

Zealand contains eleven cities; and six hundred and ten villages, some of them large and populous. The inhabitants are reckoned the most opulent of any in the Netherlands, which is in a great measure owing to their extensive trade by sea.

The States of Zealand consist of seventeen members, the president of which is the first nobleman of the province. Zealand has the privilege of sending four deputies to the assembly of the States General, who hold their office during life, and are alternately elected from among the magistrates of the several voting towns, Middleburg, Zirkzee, Goes, Tholen, Flushing, and Veer.

Middleburg, the capital of the province, is a handsome, rich, and spacious town, extremely well fortified, standing nearly in the centre of the island, in 51 degrees 47 minutes north latitude, and in 3 degrees 41 minutes east longitude, having a communication with the West Scheld by a canal a mile and a half in length, which is capable of receiving the largest ships. It is adorned with several beautiful squares; and some public structures, particularly the Town House, a noble pile, the building of which cost an hundred and fifty thousand guilders. It likewise contains seven Calvinistical churches, an Academy, an English, French, Lutheran, Mennonite, and Popish church, and a Jewish synagogue. The principal and most lucrative branch of commerce consists in the importation and exportation of wines. After a two years siege, this city fell into the hands of William I. Prince of Orange, in 1754, and has ever since remained an appendage of the States.

Flushing, a well-fortified town lying at the mouth of the Western Scheld, defends not only the passage into that river, but also that to the other isles of Zealand, and even into Flanders by sea. The harbour is large and secure, lying between two moles on the south-east of the Isle of Walcheren, and two canals. A new harbour was constructed in 1688, at the general expence of the province, sufficiently capacious to admit a fleet of eighty men of

of war. The sea flows the whole length of the town, so that merchants ships load and unload at their very doors.

The houses are in general neat and commodious; and some of the public edifices are magnificent and regular piles. This city was delivered up to Queen Elizabeth by the States, as a pledge of their fidelity, as a security for the money that princess had expended in their behalf; but it was redeemed in the reign of James I. her successor, for an insignificant sum, by no means adequate to the debt.

The province of Utrecht is almost wholly encircled by Holland and Guelderland, and extends only about thirty-two miles in length and twenty-two in breadth. The air is generally esteemed salubrious, and the soil abundantly fertile. In this province are five cities, and sixty-five towns and villages. It's states are composed of the clergy, the nobility, and the towns; the former of which are merely nominal: so that they may be said to consist of nobles and citizens of the Calvinistical persuasion, though the delegates of the five churches at Utrecht, in the assembly of the States, still represent the ancient clergy of the country.

Utrecht, (in Latin, *Utrajectum*) the capital of the province, enjoys a delightful situation on the River Rhine, in 52 degrees 10 minutes north latitude, and in 5 degrees 7 minutes east longitude. It is of considerable extent, and extremely populous, but can scarcely be said to have any regular fortifications. The inhabitants consist chiefly of tradesmen and artificers; however, along the new canal, there are some large and elegant gentlemen's seats.

The cathedral dedicated to St. Martin is the most considerable religious structure among the seven churches belonging to the Dutch Calvinists; the choir of which, and a tower detached from it, are now the only parts remaining, the rest having been destroyed by a dreadful storm in 1764, and never since rebuilt. The chapter of the cathedral is composed of forty members, who purchase their places at six or seven thousand guilders a-piece.

This city is adorned with a famous university dependent on the city magistracy; the physic-garden belonging to which is particularly curious, and claims the attention of every scientific traveller.

Utrecht is farther remarkable for the memorable union concluded between the Seven United Provinces in 1579; and for a congress of plenipotentiaries which opened here from all the states of Europe in 1712; which, within two years, terminated in a general pacification.

The province of Friesland, (in Latin, *Frisia*) so called from the ancient Frisians, a martial people, and it's former inhabitants, is bounded on the east by the River Lawers, on the south by Overysse, on the west by the Zuyder Sea, and on the north by the German Ocean; extending thirty-seven miles in length, and thirty-two in breadth.

The air and soil of this province are nearly similar to those of Holland; particularly in the north-west parts, which lie below the level of the sea, and are remarkable for their fine pastures, which fatten a numerous breed of cattle. However, in the more elevated districts, wheat arrives at great perfection, and is highly esteemed for the delicate whiteness of the flour it yields. In the number of it's canals, Friesland may vie

with

with Holland, being intersected by them in every part. It contains eleven towns, and three hundred and thirty-six villages; the inhabitants of which still retain that unconquerable passion for liberty which distinguished their ancestors, together with their customs and modes of living, even to the ancient Frisian dialect and accent, which renders the language of the country people unintelligible to the other inhabitants of the Netherlands. The principal manufactures of this province are woollen stuffs and linen; in the latter of which it excels all Europe, for the uncommon fineness and beauty of the cloth.

The majority of the inhabitants are Calvinists: however, there are many Papists, and a still greater number of Mennonites; which is the less remarkable, as Menno Simon, from whom they derive their name, was born and first propagated his doctrines in this district.

The whole province is divided into prefectures, each of which annually elects two deputies; who, with the delegates of the voting towns, compose the college of the provincial states.

Lewarden, or Leuwarden, the capital of the province, a rich, populous, and elegant town, is situated about sixty miles north-east of Amsterdam, in a very agreeable country. Both the public and private buildings are very magnificent; and several canals, running through the principal streets, considerably contribute to the convenience and commercial interest of the inhabitants.

When Friesland was governed by its own Stadtholders, they resided in an ancient structure in this city, called Prinzenhof, which gave the place an air of splendor and consequence; but this honour was lost in 1747, when William IV. was declared hereditary Stadtholder of all the United Provinces.

Franecker, a town situated on a canal about twelve miles west of the place last described, is principally remarkable for its university, founded by Count Lewis of Nassau. The halls of this university are contained in an edifice formerly appropriated as a convent to the fraternity of the Cross; but we meet with no literary curiosity that deserves particular notice.

Harlingen, one of the most populous towns in Friesland, is situated on the Fliewater, and furnished with a harbour sufficiently deep to admit ships of the greatest burden, but its entrance being obstructed by sand-banks, it is generally found necessary to lighten these vessels before they can pass.

Towards the land-side the fortifications are pretty strong, and in cases of necessity the whole country may be flooded; which, with dykes of prodigious strength on the west, render it sufficiently secure against any hostile attempts.

The province of Overijssel is bounded by Friesland on the north, by Bentheim and Munster on the east, by Guelderland on the south, and by the Zuyder Sea on the west. The soil is principally marshy and unfruitful: however, along the Yssel is some good corn land; with plenty of pasturage, which, though inferior in richness to that of the neighbouring countries, is yet valuable, from the circumstance of its being the property of the community at large, and not of individuals.

From the sterility of the soil, and other concomitant reasons, this province is less

populous than the rest, and contains fewer towns and villages. The Provincial States are composed of the nobility and the towns, both of which have an equal weight in all public deliberations; but the whole number of representatives sent to the States General is confined to five, two from the nobility, and one from each of the three principal towns, namely, Deventer, Campen, and Zivol.

Deventer (in Latin, *Daventria*) enjoys a delightful situation on the banks of the Yssel, in 52 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 5 minutes east longitude. This city is encompassed with a wall strengthened by bastions, ravelins, and outworks; and, though not of great extent, is extremely populous and commercial. It is famous for having been an ancient member of the Hanseatic Confederacy, and still possesses the privilege of coining gold and silver.

In 1589, the Spaniards carried this place by treachery; but it was soon after recovered by Prince Maurice. In 1672, it fell into the hands of the French without much resistance; who conferring it on the Bishop of Munster, it remained in his possession about two years.

Campen, a large city and port situated on the Yssel, is principally remarkable for its wooden bridge over that river, a most singular structure, seven hundred and twenty-three feet long, and twenty broad, founded on piles; but the piers are so remote from one another, that it looks as if suspended in the air.

Though this town cannot properly be ranked among the number of fortresses, by its being able to lay the adjacent country under water on any emergency, it has almost every advantage of one. This was likewise one of the Hanse Towns, and is privileged to coin money; but its trade is now very inconsiderable. In 1672 the combined troops of France and Munster having made themselves masters of it, committed the most horrid outrages.

Zivol, chiefly famous for having been an ancient free Imperial Hanse Town, is situated in a pleasant country on the River Aa, which at this place obtains the name of the Black Water. By means of a canal, it preserves a communication with the Yssel, and by the Black Water with the Zuyder Sea, from whence its trade is pretty considerable. The fortifications are immensely strong; and many of the buildings, both public and private, exhibit marks of elegance and magnificence.

The province of Groningen is bounded on the north by the German Ocean; on the east by Munster; on the south by the territory of Drenthe; and on the west by Friesland, which it entirely resembles in its soil and air. It contains only three towns; but its villages amount to an hundred and sixty-five. Its political institutions are nearly similar to those of the provinces already described; and the meetings of its states are always held at Groningen.

The last-mentioned city, the capital, and indeed the only place of consequence in the whole province, is situated in 53 degrees 28 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 35 minutes east longitude, at the confluence of several rivulets which form the Hunse and the Fivel. Its extent was formerly inconsiderable; but, within the last century, it has received many capital improvements and additions, and its fortifications are at present in a good state of defence.

Besides

Besides a number of beautiful religious and civil edifices, Groningen is adorned with an university, well furnished with professors in the respective sciences.

The greatest curiosity we meet with in this seminary, is an inscription in the library, fully authenticated, informing us that a certain soldier lived there sixteen days after receiving a wound in the right ventricle of his heart.

The fate of war has often thrown this city into the hands of different powers; but in the last siege it underwent, (in 1672) the inhabitants made such an obstinate resistance against the Bishop of Munster, that the prelate was obliged to raise the blockade, after losing ten thousand men.

Having briefly remarked whatever seemed worthy of notice in the Seven United Provinces, we shall just observe, that the Dutch are likewise in possession of the country of Drenthe, bordering on Groningen; a district detached from the German Empire, and afterwards put under the protection of the States; though, on account of the smallness of it's extent, it never could obtain the privilege of sending a representative to the States General.

Besides Drenthe, under the dominion of the States General are several towns and small tracts of land dispersed over the Netherlands, and usually distinguished by the name of Generalité Lands; by which is meant towns or districts subdued by the Seven United Provinces, and solemnly annexed to their territories by treaties and conventions.

The Generalité Lands consist of part of Brabant, a district bordering upon Guelderland and Holland; the barony of Breda; the marquisate of Bergen-op-zoom; the city of Maestricht; and the little district of Sluys, lying in the most northern parts of Flanders.

One of the principal cities in Dutch Brabant is Bois le Duc, (in Latin, *Sylva Ducis*) situated in 51 degrees 36 minutes north latitude, and in 5 degrees 25 minutes east longitude, at the confluence of the Rivers Dommel and Aa, which after their junction obtain the name of Dieft.

This city was first founded in 1184 by Godfrey III. Duke of Brabant; who having ordered a wood to be cleared and applied in building the houses, from this circumstance originated it's present name. On every accessible quarter the fortifications are pretty strong; and being intersected by several canals, it has a considerable number of shipping belonging to the inhabitants, and an extensive and flourishing trade.

Breda, the capital of a barony of the same name is situated at the junction of the Merk and the Aa; the last of which rivers is navigable, and has a communication with the German Ocean. This city, which stands in 51 degrees 35 minutes north latitude, and 4 degrees 52 minutes east longitude, contains about fifteen hundred handsome buildings, and a castle of great strength encompassed with a moat. The fortifications have always been found an adequate protection when attacked by a vigorous enemy; though the city itself is partly covered by a morass, and the inhabitants are enabled to lay part of the circumjacent country under water.

Prince Maurice took Breda by stratagem in 1590, but the Spaniards recovered it in 1625; however, it again fell into the hands of the States in 1637. At this place King Charles

Charles II. resided, when he received the invitation to return, and resume his paternal sceptre; and from Breda his famous declaration was dated. A celebrated treaty was likewise concluded at this place in 1667, between the ambitious Louis XIV. of France and the States General.

To the west of Breda, at the distance of twenty miles, lies Bergen-op-zoom, the capital of a marquissate, containing about eleven hundred houses; and has always been celebrated as a strong and almost impregnable fortress. Indeed, engineers of the most distinguished reputation have exerted their abilities in completing its fortifications, and to facilitate the conveyance of supplies and reinforcements in case of a blockade.

In 1588, and again in 1622, this town held out against two powerful armies of Spaniards; but the French found means to possess themselves of it by surprise in 1747, after only a ten weeks siege: however, it was restored to the States two years after, and the damages it had sustained repaired with additional strength and magnificence.

Maastricht, one of the strongest and most ancient cities of the Netherlands, is situated in 50 degrees 51 minutes north latitude, and in 5 degrees 38 minutes east longitude, on the banks of the Maese, which divides it into two parts, united by a magnificent stone-bridge. That division which lies to the east of the river belongs to the Dutchy of Limburg, and is called Wyk.

The number of houses included within the walls amounts to above three thousand, exclusive of the religious and public structures. The sovereignty of the town is jointly vested in the States General and the Bishop of Liege; but the former alone garrison it, and possess ecclesiastical jurisdiction over it: however, in other respects, their power is equalized.

Maastricht was anciently subject to the head of the Germanic Empire; but ceded by Philip, in 1204, to Henry Duke of Brabant. In 1632, it fell into the hands of the States General, and in their possession it was confirmed by the peace of Munster. Since that æra it has twice submitted to the arms of France, but has again reverted to the Dutch, its former masters.

In the vicinity of Maastricht is an extraordinary quarry, in which are long passages supported by innumerable square pillars, each twenty feet high at least. Being furnished with several apertures for the admission of air, and some small reservoirs, in time of war it affords a safe protection to the peasantry, who being acquainted with all its windings, secure their cattle and other valuables in this subterraneous retreat, which is capacious enough to contain forty thousand men.

Sluys, (in French, *L'Ecluse*) a town of considerable extent, and so strongly fortified in every quarter that the adjacent country cannot be flooded, is situated on a bay in the German Ocean. From the nature of its situation, it is almost impossible to impede its necessary supplies and reinforcements; but, to counterbalance these advantages, its air is so unhealthy, that it is found necessary to change the garrison every year.

In 1405, the English made an unsuccessful attempt on this place; but, in 1587, it was taken by the Spaniards, by whom it had been ceded to the Dutch. However, the last-mentioned nation recovered it, under Prince Maurice, in 1604, the besieged having held out till

till they had experienced all the horrors of famine, and had consumed every thing that could possibly support nature.

The Netherlands, or *Gallia Belgica* of the Romans, on the decline of their empire, were over-run by the Goths, and other northern tribes; who, in their eruptions into the more southern countries of Europe, took possession of these provinces in their way, and erected several small governments, whose sovereigns were stiled dukes, counts, and lords. The subjects of these provinces appear to have enjoyed abundance of privileges, and to have been governed with a paternal regard; but by degrees, as these principalities became subject to one general sovereign, the people were treated with less indulgence, and at last experienced the most unrelenting tyranny.

Charles V. being at once Emperor of Germany, King of Spain, and Duke of Burgundy, from the extent of his dominions, and the different interests he had to espouse, was obliged to bring foreign forces into the Netherlands, to defend his just pretensions; which being contrary to the laws, laid the foundation of animosity and discontent. The Reformation taking place soon after, the rigorous edicts of that prince against the separatists from the Church of Rome (by which Grotius affirms that upwards of one hundred thousand people lost their lives) increased the disaffection which had before been sown; and, on Charles's nominating his son Philip to be governor of the Netherlands, the natives became extremely alienated from the House of Austria. This prince being himself a sanguinary bigot and an avaricious tyrant, and having delegated his power to Ferdinand of Toledo Duke of Alba, the proper instrument of such a character, the Netherlands made a noble effort to regain their civil and religious liberties, under William Prince of Orange and his brother Count Lewis of Nassau. The States of Holland having conferred, in their own name, the Stadtholdership on the former, and several towns and provinces declaring for him, in 1576 he first united them in one general association, under the title of the Pacification of Ghent. But this union being soon dissolved by the persevering zeal of the prince, a more durable alliance was happily formed in 1579. In that year the celebrated league of Utrecht was concluded, which gave name to the United Provinces, and became the basis and plan of their future constitution.

Success having thus far crowned the prince's endeavours, he was about to be recognized sovereign of the countries he had united, when in 1584 he was treacherously shot by a Spanish assassin. However, the United Provinces continued to support the liberty to which they had aspired; and Queen Elizabeth of England espousing their cause, the Spaniards met with so many mortifying repulses, that in 1606 they agreed to an armistice of twelve years; and, in the very first article of the truce, acknowledged the United Netherlands to be a free and independent state: and, during this period, the Republic arrived at a degree of power and commercial consequence which it has never since exceeded.

The Spaniards, during this cessation of arms, having had sufficient time to recover themselves, in 1621 they again renewed the war, which was terminated by the peace of Munster in 1648; by which Philip IV. of Spain for ever renounced all claim to the United Provinces.



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FLANDERS.

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SUBDIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

II. ANTWERP.

Subject to the House of Austria.

III. MALINES.

Subject to Austria.

IV. LIMBURG.

Subject to Austria - Limburg.

Subject to the Dutch { Dalem.
Fauquemont, or
Valkenburg.

V. LUXEMBURG.

Austrian Luxembourg	- - - - -	Luxemburg.
French Luxembourg	- - - - -	{ Thionville. Montmedy.

VI. NAMUR.

Subject to Austria { Namur.
Charleroy.

VII. HAINAULT.

Austrian Hainault	- - - - -	{ Mons. Aeth.
French Hainault	- - - - -	{ Valenciennes. Bouchain. Conde.

VIII. CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France { Cambrai.
Craveccour.

IX. ARTOIS.

Subject to France { Arras.
St. Omer.
Aire.
St. Venant.
Bethune.
Terouen.

X. FLANDERS.

SUBDIVISIONS.

CHIEF TOWNS.

X. FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders	- - - - -	{ Sluys. Axel. Hulst. Sas van Ghent.
Austrian Flanders	- - - - -	{ Ghent on the Scheld. Bruges. Ostend. Newport. Oudenard. Courtray. Dixmude. Ypres. Tournay. Menin.
French Flanders	- - - - -	{ Lille. Dunkirk. Calais. Douay. Mardike. St. Amand. Gravelin.

The air of Brabant, and along the maritime districts, is generally esteemed thick and insalubrious; but in the interior parts it is extremely healthful, and the seasons are far more regular and uniform than in Britain. The soil is in most parts abundantly fertile, producing corn and fruits in great plenty, and affording excellent pasturage; and even the more sterile districts yield very profitable crops of flax, an article which is here cultivated to great perfection. Indeed, the Austrian Netherlands, by the united aids of culture, commerce, and the enterprising spirit of its inhabitants, anciently formed the most opulent as well as the most beautiful spot in Europe; the most elegant manufactures were brought to all possible perfection; the cities were rich and magnificent beyond description; and the whole face of the country exhibited the most enchanting appearance. These qualities, however, exist at present but in a very inferior degree: neglected by its respective governments, and outstripped in every commercial pursuit by Holland and Great Britain, Flanders has sunk in splendor in proportion as those powers have risen. It is, notwithstanding, still a most desirable and pleasant country; provisions are remarkably plentiful and cheap; and even in the great cities, where the amusements are elegant, and the company genteel, a considerable figure may be made with what in England would be deemed a very moderate income.

The principal rivers of Flanders are the Maese, Scheld, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Geet, Nethe, Ruppel, Sanne, Deule, Dender, Lis, and Scarpe; and the most capital canals are those of Brussels, Ostend, and Ghent.

In the provinces of Luxemburg and Limburg are mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimstone;

brimstone; and quarries of several species of marble: Namur abounds in coal-pits, and a kind of fat bituminous earth used as fuel, with plenty of curious fossil nitre.

The natives of Flanders, or the Flemings, as they are generally called, are characterized as a saturnine, blunt, and honest race, upright in their intentions, but rather indelicate in their manners. Anciently, they were distinguished for active bravery and patriotic enthusiasm; but at present they are no way celebrated for martial ardour. The population of the Austrian Netherlands has been estimated at upwards of a million and a half; a prodigious number for the extent of the country, and probably a little exaggerated.

Ignorance seems to pervade the lower classes; a state which disposes them to admire religious exhibitions and pageants, which constitute no inconsiderable part of their amusements.

The inhabitants of French Flanders assimilate their dress and customs to those of the government under which they live, and possess all that gaiety and politeness which distinguish the French in an eminent degree. The Flemings, on the other hand, who join on the frontiers of Holland, copy the dress and language of the Dutch: however, the better sort of people throughout Flanders speak French; and are remarkable for the splendor of their dress and equipage, and the easy sprightliness of their manners.

The archbishoprics in this country are Cambray, and Maline, or Mechlin; and the bishoprics are Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremond. The Catholic religion is universally established; but Protestants of various denominations may live secure from molestation, if they demean themselves with tolerable propriety.

Among those natives of Flanders who have distinguished themselves by their literary abilities, may be ranked several eminent Jesuits; a society formerly possessing many comfortable settlements, but which is now much on the decline. In theology, the civil and canon laws, Latin, poetry, and plays, the Flemings have been most successful. Strada stands at the head of historians and poets. The elegant arts in this country have arrived at greater perfection than the useful. The Flemish sculptors and painters possess a very superior degree of merit, and form a school of themselves. The animated productions of Rubens and Vandyke will command admiration to the latest ages. Flamingo, or the Fleming's models for heads, have never yet been equalled; and the ingenious art of weaving tapestry was long confined to the Flemings alone.

The universities in Flanders are four, St. Omer's, Douay, Tournay, and Louvain: the three former of which contain nothing very remarkable; the latter was founded by John IV. Duke of Brabant, in 1426, and enjoys many extensive privileges. Pope Sixtus IV. conferred on this university the right of presentation to all the ecclesiastical preferments in the Netherlands; which privilege they still enjoy, except in the Seven United Provinces.

The most valuable manufactures carried on in the French and Austrian Netherlands are those of linen and lace; in which, notwithstanding the great improvements of their neighbours in these respects, they still remain unrivalled; particularly in that beautiful species of linen called cambric, from Cambray, the original place of its invention, and still the

chief place where this manufacture is carried on. The above form the principal articles of Flemish commerce, and are universally admired throughout Europe.

With respect to the political constitution of the Netherlands, that part which is subject to Austria being still considered as a circle of the empire, it contributes it's share to the stated imports, and sends an envoy to the Imperial diet; but the archducal house being the sole director, it is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. For the regular administration of justice, a governor-general is appointed by the court of Vienna, generally a near relation of the Imperial family, who commonly resides at Brussels, where the face of an assembly or parliament for each province is still kept up, consisting of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns. Each province institutes a claim to particular privileges; but these are seldom insisted on with so much spirit as to contradict the measures recommended by the governor from his court. Subordinate to the governor-general, or regent, is a particular governor for every province; under whom are various courts of justice, in which causes are decided according to the civil and canon laws.

The Austrian revenues arise from the demesne lands and customs; but, since the great decline of trade this country has experienced, they are so much reduced as scarcely to be productive of a sum sufficient to defray the necessary expences of government. The French Netherlands, however, from a more economical plan of government, and several other concurring reasons, bring in a very considerable revenue to that crown.

The standing military force maintained by the Emperor in Flanders is very inadequate to the defence of the frontier posts, which in time of war would require at least 40,000 men. Indeed, by the Barrier Treaty, the Austrians stipulated to maintain three-fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two; however, by mutual connivance or consent, both are extremely deficient in their requisite quotas.

The arms of Flanders are, Or, a Lion sable, langued Gules.

Having given a general account of this country, we now proceed to a description of it's principal cities; a subject which has formerly filled many volumes, when the Netherlands were as much celebrated for the number and beauty of their towns as the fertility of the soil and the opulence of the inhabitants.

Louvain, (in Latin, *Lovanium*) a town of great extent, in 51 degrees 12 minutes north latitude, and 4 degrees 40 minutes east longitude, situated on the River Dyle, was formerly the capital of all Brabant, and had a very flourishing manufacture of linen and woollen, established as early as the commencement of the fourteenth century; but the cloth-weavers raised a dreadful insurrection in 1382; and having been punished on that account, a considerable number withdrew to England; on which the manufactures began to dwindle, and the city itself to decay; nor has it ever since recovered it's ancient trade and splendor, being now only famous for it's gardens, walks, and arbours, which occupy a considerable extent within the walls.

This city contains five parochial churches, all very noble structures; particularly the collegiate church of St. Peter, whose principal steeple was originally five hundred and thirty-feet high, but which was blown down by a violent storm in 1606. A college of

Jesuits,

Jesuits, fifteen monasteries, and an equal number of nunneries, lie also within the walls. The church belonging to the Jesuit's convent would do honour to the purest ages of architecture. Among the nunneries, that allotted for the English is the finest in the Low Countries, and very richly endowed.

We have already mentioned the founder of the university of Louvain, and the ample privileges with which that seminary is invested. The principal person in this university is styled *Rector Magnificus*, who is always elected from among the professors of the five faculties; namely, divinity, the canon law, the civil law, physic, and the liberal arts; and holds his place only three months, unless a fresh designation intervenes.

The Town House is a stately fabric, built in the ancient taste, externally adorned with a variety of sculptures and statues, and internally with a profusion of decorations. In this edifice the magistrates assemble twice a week, who are extremely numerous, consisting of two burgo-masters, seven aldermen, two recorders, six secretaries, and four treasurers; besides a council of twenty-one, eleven of which are country gentlemen, and the other ten deacons of trades.

This city was attacked in 1542 by a general of the Guelderlanders, but without success: about thirty years afterwards, William Prince of Orange besieged it; but the burghers, assisted by the students, obliged him to retire. In 1635, it was again attacked in vain by the French and Dutch: and in 1710, the first-mentioned nation having entered the city by surprize, met with such a warm reception from the inhabitants, that they were obliged to retire in great confusion; in compliment for which piece of bravery, Charles V. of Spain presented them with a golden key, which is still preserved as a curiosity in the Town-house. However, the French at last found means to obtain absolute possession of this place in 1746, and kept it till 1749.

Brussels, (in French *Bruxelles*, and in Latin *Bruxella*) the capital of Brabant, and the residence of the governor-general of the Netherlands, is situated on the little River Senne, in 50 degrees 15 minutes north latitude, and 4 degrees 6 minutes east longitude; enjoying an elevated situation, and containing a vast number of beautiful structures. This city makes a noble appearance, and is scarcely inferior to any in Europe: it is furnished with seven gates, which lead to as many suburbs, and surrounded with a double brick-wall of considerable strength; but being upwards of seven miles in circuit, would hardly be tenable against a resolute enemy for any length of time. The streets are spacious, but uneven; and the houses in general lofty and grand. The number of squares is seven; among which, that of the Great Market-place is one of the most superb in Europe. The Town-house, a noble pile, with a tower three hundred and sixty-four feet high, occupies one entire side of this square; in which structure are several stately apartments, particularly that where the Brabantine States assemble.

Opposite the Town-house stands the Imperial Palace, the entrance into which is by a spacious court. This edifice is built in a grand but irregular stile, ornamented with a number of brass statues of the emperors and dukes of Brabant, and containing many pillars of the same metal. Behind the palace is a descent, by a pair of hanging-stairs, into a beautiful
parterre

parterre adorned with fountains and evergreens; and beyond this is a park delightfully laid out, in which every one is at liberty to walk.

The Arsenal was formerly extremely well supplied, but contains at present only a few remains of ancient armour, with some curious equestrian statues. Near this structure stand the beautiful palaces of the Prince of Orange, the Prince of Ligne, the Dukes of Aremberg and Arfcot, the Princes of Epinoy, Cubenpre, and Egmont; some of which are adorned with noble collections of paintings, and surrounded with beautiful gardens.

The Opera House, built by the Duke of Bavaria in 1700, is one of the most spacious and magnificent edifices of the kind in the world, fitted up in the Italian taste, with rows of lodges or closets, which the nobility generally hire during the winter season for the accommodation of their families and friends. That of the Prince of Ligne being lined with looking-glasses, the company may sit entirely shut up from the audience, and see the whole representation, without being themselves visible to any one.

The seven parochial churches of Brussels are vastly magnificent; among which the collegiate church of St. Gedula, built on an elevated situation near the Louvain Gate, claims pre-eminence both for beauty and extent. Its internal decorations are very numerous and splendid: and in the choir are several monuments sacred to the memory of illustrious personages; the most admired of which is that of Ernest, Archduke of Austria, governor of the Netherlands. In one of the chapels are preserved, in a golden chalice set with diamonds, three hosts, which, the legend says, were stabbed by a Jew about the year 1369, and some drops of blood issued from them. In commemoration of this event, there is an annual procession on the Sunday immediately following the thirteenth of July, when these hosts are carried round the city, attended by the regular and secular clergy, the magistrates, the courts of justice, and even the provincial governor.

Brussels is also adorned with a Jesuits college; eleven monasteries; twenty-one nunneries, of which two are English; a beguinage, or foundation of pious maids; and several other religious institutions.

In short, Brussels may vie with any city in the universe for the beauty of its situation, the goodness of its company, and the cheapness of its provisions. In one of the inns, or eating-houses, a stranger has the advantage of dining, any time between twelve and three, on seven or eight dishes of meat, for less than an English shilling. The wines likewise are proportionably cheap; and a coach may be hired for sixpence to any place within the walls. By means of the canal, travellers have a communication twice a day with Antwerp, which tends much to increase the resort of company to Brussels.

Among the peculiarities of this place, it may be observed that the carts of those people who sell fruits and other hortulane productions are drawn by dogs round the streets. Another singular custom is kept up on the 19th of January, when the women of Brussels undress their husbands, and carry them to bed; for which act of condescension the husbands are obliged to treat their friends next day. The origin of this custom, we are told, is derived from the city being once reduced to such extremity, as to be obliged to surrender to the enemy, when the women only were suffered to escape, carrying with them what they esteemed most valuable; on which they all marched out with their husbands on their backs.

The

The most material circumstances relative to the history of this city are—a furious bombardment it suffered from the French in 1695, which in forty-six hours demolished fourteen churches, and upwards of four thousand houses; its siege by the Elector of Bavaria in 1708, which was raised by the Duke of Marlborough; and its being taken by the French in 1746, but restored to the Emperor by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Brussels is likewise celebrated throughout the world for its elegant manufactures of tapestry, camblets, and bone-lace.

Antwerp, the capital of a marquise, is situated in a low and fenny soil on the eastern bank of the Scheld, in 51 degrees 15 minutes north latitude, and 4 degrees 15 minutes east longitude; built in form of a crescent, and said to be three thousand six hundred and thirty-five geometrical paces in circuit. The streets are generally straight and well paved; but the houses, being built in a peculiar manner, partly of brick, and partly of stone, with a sort of battlements on their tops, and very high roofs, make a very grotesque appearance. The fortifications are more remarkable for their beauty than their strength; the ramparts being in general adorned with double rows of trees, which in summer afford a most refreshing shade: however, the citadel is a strong and regular fortress. This was once reputed the richest and best-frequented port in Europe; and the city-records mention, as an instance of the opulence of its inhabitants, that a merchant, named John Daens, having lent a million of gold to Charles V. afterwards invited that emperor to a sumptuous entertainment; and having kindled a fire of cinnamon (a spice which at that time bore a very high price) he threw the Emperor's bond into it, and thus cancelled the debt.

Antwerp contains twenty-two public squares: also two hundred and twelve streets; the principal of which, called Mere, is so spacious, that six coaches may drive abreast; and the houses on each side are in general elegant and stately.

The Citadel, esteemed one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, is built in a pentagonal form, on the banks of the Scheld, and fully commands the town, the river, and the circumjacent country. It was first erected by Philip II. of Spain, for the purpose of checking the trade of this city, which before that æra was a free port; and consists of five bastions, which, from the regularity of the citadel, defend one another; large, deep, and double ditches; with only one gate; and is said to be upwards of two thousand five hundred paces in circumference.

The Exchange of Antwerp is a most magnificent structure, one hundred and eighty feet long, and an hundred and forty broad; adorned with four spacious gates; and the walks are supported with stately pillars of blue marble. Underneath are magazines stored with every species of merchandize; and above is an academy for painting, sculpture, architecture, and the mathematics. This noble edifice, the first of its kind in Europe, furnished Sir Thomas Gresham with several hints which were adopted in erecting the Royal Exchange in London.

The Town House is likewise a superb piece of architecture, built of free-stone, with a highly ornamented front; and stands in the great market-place, a very spacious square, in which all public executions are performed.

Antwerp being the see of a bishop, suffragan to the Archbishop of Mechlin, the ecclesiastical structures are numerous and beautiful. The cathedral of Our Lady is a very grand pile, upwards of five hundred feet long, two hundred and thirty broad, and three hundred and sixty high: the spire rises to the height of four hundred and sixty-six feet, the cross at the top to an hundred and fifty-one; and in the belfrey are thirty-three capital bells, with two sets of chimes. The three principal gates are embellished with marble and gilding; and the altars with paintings, some of them by the masterly pencil of Rubens. Several curious pieces of Quintin Masséy likewise adorn this cathedral; who, having originally been a blacksmith, happened to fall in love with a painter's daughter; but being assured by her father that he would never bestow her on any but a painter, Masséy immediately set out for Italy, entered the Lombard School, and in a few years returned an eminent master, when he again wooed, and gained the object of his affections. This artist lies interred at the entrance of the cathedral, where his effigy is put up, with this inscription—*‘Connubialis amor de Mulcibre fecit Apellem;’* that is—*‘Connubial love transformed Vulcan into Apelles.’*

The church belonging to the Jesuit's college is deservedly admired. The front is a most beautiful piece of architecture, on the pediment of which is placed a statue of Ignatius Loyola. The inside is paved with the finest white marble; the galleries are supported by columns of the same; the great altar is elegantly formed of marble, jasper, porphyry, and gold; and the ceiling delightfully painted by Rubens and Vandyke. The picture of the Assumption of the Virgin, on the great altar, executed by Rubens, was regarded by that great master as one of his most capital works.

Antwerp, among other valuable privileges, enjoys the following, viz. that every person born in it is esteemed a citizen, though both the father and the mother are aliens. But, notwithstanding all the advantages of situation, and immunities of the inhabitants, this city is far from being in a flourishing condition. Internal commotions, sieges, and commercial restrictions, have considerably abridged it's trade. But nothing has been so fatal to it's interest as a stipulation entered into between the Spaniards and the United Provinces at the treaty of Munster in 1648; namely—*‘That no large ship should proceed directly to Antwerp, but unlade it's cargo in Holland.’*

Mechlin, a large and elegant city, is situated on the Dyle and the Demer, sixteen miles south-east of Antwerp, in 51 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 40 minutes east longitude. The streets are spacious and neat, the canals numerous and beautiful, and the edifices in general handsome and commodious. This city being an archiepiscopal see, it is adorned with a stately cathedral, the steeple of which is esteemed the most lofty in the Netherlands. The other religious edifices are beautiful and spacious; particularly the collegiate church of Our Lady, and the parochial church of Our Lady of Hanswyck. St. Rombant, a native of Ireland, and Bishop of Dublin, is patron of this city; and his remains are preserved in a silver shrine with the most religious veneration.

The inhabitants of Mechlin carry on a considerable trade in corn, thread, and blankets; however, their principal manufacture is that of fine laces, which are well known in every part of Europe.

Like

Like other ancient cities, Mechlin has experienced a variety of fortunes; but the most memorable circumstance relative to it's history is, that in the year 1547 a tower being set on fire by lightning, communicated to two hundred quintals of gunpowder, which instantly blowing up, occasioned a most fatal and melancholy catastrophe.

Limburg, the capital of a province, enjoys an elevated situation near the banks of the Weser, in 50 degrees 46 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 14 minutes east longitude. The circumjacent country affords several species of marble, and exhibits a surprising view of mountains, rocks, and precipices. The fortifications of Limburg, which are regular and strong, are from their situation deemed almost impregnable. The French, however, under the Prince of Condé, in 1765, laid siege to this city; when every supply being effectually cut off, the governor was obliged to surrender in eleven days after the opening of the trenches; and, two years after, they blew up the castle, and set fire to the whole city, from an apprehension that they should be obliged to restore it on the re-establishment of peace. The treaty of Nimeguen confirmed it to the Emperor; but, on the breaking out of a fresh war, the French again got possession, and kept it about three years, when the Allied army, under the glorious Duke of Marlborough, invested and took it, together with the whole French garrison; and, soon after, Limburg was again restored to the Emperor.

Luxemburg, the capital of a dutchy, and one of the strongest fortifications in the Netherlands, is situated on the River Elz, at it's confluence with the rivulet of Petreufe, in 49 degrees 2 minutes north latitude, and 6 degrees 10 minutes east longitude. This city is divided into two parts, called the Upper and the Lower Town: the former is of an heptagonal form, and partly built on a rock; and the latter is situated amidst deep vallies, and consists of two suburbs. But though the public and religious structures are pretty numerous, neither of them deserve particular notice; nor, indeed, is this city at all celebrated for it's beauty or opulence.

The calamities of war have frequently been felt in Luxemburg. During the two last centuries it has several times changed it's masters; and has alternately sworn allegiance to the French, Dutch, and Germans: however, in 1715, it was surrendered and finally confirmed to the House of Austria.

Ghent, the capital of Flanders Proper, is situated thirty-five miles north-west of Brussels, in 51 degrees 12 minutes north latitude, and in 3 degrees 36 minutes east longitude. The confluence of several rivers at this place, as well as several artificial canals, prove extremely beneficial to it's commerce and strength; the site of the city being divided into twenty-six islands by these intersecting rivers and canals, over which are as many capital bridges, besides seventy-two of inferior dimensions. The citadel, erected by the Emperor Charles V. consists of four regular bastions; but, from it's situation, it appears rather designed to command than defend the town: however, on any emergency, the whole country for a mile round may be laid under water.

Ghent, at the request of Philip II. was erected into an episcopal see, and made suffragan to Mechlin; the celebrated Cornelius Jansenius, from whom the Jansenists derive their name, having been appointed it's first bishop. The cathedral dedicated to St. John the

the Baptist is a beautiful, spacious, and venerable structure; nor are some of the parochial churches, of which there are fix, much inferior in point of elegance.

The public buildings are in general fine pieces of ancient architecture; particularly the Town House, which was begun in 1600, and finished twenty years after. Near this edifice stands a very lofty tower, with an ascent of more than three hundred steps, containing a melodious chime of bells, the largest of which weighs eleven thousand pounds.

Among the curiosities of Ghent are two brass statues standing on a bridge over the Lys, representing one man in the act of cutting off another's head with a knife: the erection of which statues is attributed to the following legend. A father and his son being both condemned to die, a pardon was offered to him who would undertake to be the other's executioner; when a long and affecting contest ensued between these unhappy persons which of them should embrace the blessing of life on the proffered terms. At length the father prevailed on the son to save himself, by complying with the severe and unnatural injunction; but, just as the son was about to give the fatal blow, the blade either broke in the air, or flew out of the handle: which circumstance was regarded as a singular instance of the interposition of Providence, and they were both immediately pardoned.

The principal trade of Ghent consists in cloths, stuffs, and silks; of which immense quantities are manufactured and exported to different countries.

The magistracy consists of burgomasters, aldermen, and counsellors, annually elected from among the principal inhabitants; at the head of whom is the high-bailiff.

Ghent has experienced a variety of revolutions since the year 1539; when the inhabitants, being overloaded with taxes, revolted from Charles V. and implored the assistance of Francis I. of France; which request he refused. At this time Charles was in Spain, but set out for Ghent immediately on receiving intelligence of the revolt; and, on his arrival, punished the insurgents with singular severity, sentencing some to be hanged, and others to be banished; deprived the city of its artillery, arms, and privileges; and amerced the inhabitants in the sum of twelve hundred thousand crowns. To shew his indignation still farther, the magistrates were enjoined to walk in public procession with ropes about their necks; a fort was built to command the town; and a disfranchisement immediately took place. By this rigid exercise of power, one of the largest and most populous cities in Europe was almost deserted; but it has since in some measure recovered its ancient splendor, though the extent within the walls is said not to be one half of what it was formerly.

In 1576, the famous treaty called the Pacification of Ghent was concluded here between the States General and Philip II. of Spain. In 1678, this city was besieged by the French, whose king in person headed the attack; and with such fury was the siege carried on, that though the citizens cut their dykes, and laid part of the country under water, the citadel was obliged to surrender: but, four months after, the French restored it to the Spaniards by the treaty of Nimeguen. On the death of Charles II. in 1700, the French a second time possessed themselves of Ghent; but in 1706 delivered it up to the Allies. After the battle of Ramillies, the French surprized and took it a third time in 1708; but, shortly after, it was wrested from them by the Allies. The French, on the breaking out of
another

another way, again made themselves masters of this city in 1745; however, it was restored and confirmed to the Emperor by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Bruges (in Latin *Bruga*) is situated in 51 degrees 16 minutes north latitude, and in 3 degrees 15 minutes east longitude, at the junction of several canals which communicate with Ostend, Newport, Furnes, and Dunkirk. The water in these canals is entirely stagnant, though the ground is considerably lower towards the sea than in the town; however, it may be occasionally renewed by means of three sluices contrived for that purpose.

The streets of this city are spacious and regular; and the squares are pretty numerous and elegant, particularly that called the Friday's Market Place, at one end of which stands a fine steeple of great height, containing a musical ring of bells.

The cathedral is an ancient and venerable building, but contains nothing remarkable. The two collegiate churches of Our Lady and St. Saviour, and indeed all the parochial churches and chapels, are proportionably grand: but none is more celebrated than that of the Carmelites, in which stands a beautiful monument of Henry Jermyn, Lord Dover, an English peer.

To particularize all the religious institutions in this city would greatly exceed the limits of this work: we shall therefore only observe that, among other nunneries, there are two dedicated to the English nation, one of them of Augustine nuns, who are all ladies of high rank, and who generally entertain strangers at the grate with wines and sweetmeats.

Few cities have made more ample provision for the poor and orphans than Bruges; a circumstance which reflects the highest honour on the humanity of the natives. In one establishment, called the School for Orphans, founded in 1411, one hundred and thirty boys of that description are brought up to literature or trades, according to their respective propensities.

The principal avocation of the commercial ranks is the manufacturing of cottons, fine woollen stuffs, linen and lace, fustians and tapestries. The traders are divided into sixty-eight companies.

About two centuries ago, Bruges was in a very flourishing condition, and much resorted to by merchants from every part of Europe, who had their respective warehouses, and many of them elegant private habitations. Each nation had also its proper consul; and seventeen ancient palaces are still shewn, in which these consuls resided. The grand and primary cause of the decline of this city was a revolt of the inhabitants against the Archduke Maximilian, who had espoused the heiress of the House of Burgundy; on which occasion the citizens proceeded to such unjustifiable and indecent lengths, that they detained the prince himself in custody, and abused his officers and servants: but, after a scene of universal anarchy had been exhibited for near twelve months, the infatuated inhabitants, dreading the consequences, implored their sovereign's clemency; which was refused, on any other conditions than those of delivering up several of the ringleaders to be executed or banished, and the whole city submitting to a considerable fine.

Indeed, since Antwerp and Amsterdam have extended their commerce, that of Bruges has proportionably declined; however, it is still the residence of some opulent merchants, who carry on a pretty extensive trade in the articles above-mentioned.

Ypres, (in Latin *Ipra*) a city of some eminence, is situated on the little River Ypre, in 50 degrees 57 minutes north latitude, and in 2 degrees 51 minutes east longitude. The buildings in general are constructed with wood; notwithstanding which, they have rather an handsome appearance. The religious structures occupy nearly one-third of the whole place, some of which are ancient and stately piles. This city, which is an episcopal see, subordinate to the Archbishop of Mechlin, and one of the barrier towns ceded to the States General in 1715, has frequently been besieged by the French; particularly in 1744, when the Dutch garrison surrendered almost as soon as the French encamped before it.

Ostend, (in Latin *Ostenda*) situated in 51 degrees 14 minutes north latitude, and in 2 degrees 59 minutes east longitude, is famous for having been the resort of British travellers and traders during our wars with the French, from which circumstance it has derived no inconsiderable portion of its present grandeur and opulence. The site is marshy, and intersected by a variety of canals; and as the sea may be admitted so as to cover a considerable extent of the circumjacent country, it is deemed almost impregnable.

The buildings are generally low, though many of them possess no small share of elegance; and the streets are straight and regular. One great inconvenience, however, attends this city, namely, a scarcity of fresh water, which the inhabitants principally procure from Bruges by means of boats, and deposit in a large reservoir situated near the harbour.

Ostend will ever be memorable in history, on account of the long siege it sustained against the Spaniards, which commenced on the fifth of July 1601, and held out till the twenty-second of September 1604, when it surrendered on honourable terms. This noble defence may be in a great measure ascribed to the supplies sent from England, and the spirited conduct of Sir Francis Vere, a native of that country. Eighty thousand men are said to have fallen on the side of the Spaniards during the siege; though, when they first invested the city, they did not suppose it would have held out a fortnight: and this chimaera induced the Archdutchess to make a vow that she would not shift herself till it had capitulated; which, we are told, she religiously observed. History records a number of singular circumstances attending this extraordinary attack; particularly, that the Spaniards shot such a number of iron bullets against the sand-hill bulwark, that they formed a wall, which dashed in pieces all succeeding ones shot against it. Prince Maurice had several times attempted to relieve this place, but in vain; the Spaniards being so strongly entrenched, as to render every attempt to dislodge them not only perilous but impracticable.

In 1658, Cardinal Mazarine attempted to take this city by stratagem, sending Marshal D'Aumont, with several men of war, to surprize it; but, far from accomplishing the object of this expedition, the marshal himself, with all his ships, were taken: however, on the demise of Charles II. of Spain, the French got possession of Ostend, but were obliged to relinquish it after the decisive battle of Ramillies.

Charles VI. the late emperor, having concerted a plan for making this city the emporium of Asiatic commerce, established in it the famous Ostend Company. This scheme was clandestinely countenanced by several eminent Dutch and English merchants; but being

being strenuously opposed by all the maritime powers, who captured some of the Company's ships on their return from the Indies, after many negotiations, this establishment was entirely abolished.

Mons, (in Latin *Montes*) an extensive, strong, and opulent city, of Hainault, is situated near the confluence of the Hayne and Trouille, in 50 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and 3 degrees 36 minutes east longitude; containing about five thousand private houses, and several magnificent public structures: and as the whole surrounding country may be overflowed, except on the south-east side, where strong bastions are erected, the approaches of an enemy are both difficult and hazardous.

Mons contains six parochial churches, two of which are collegiate; a Jesuits college; and several cloisters; besides a chapter of canoneses founded by St. Waltrude, who, agreeably to the rules of their foundation, assist at morning service in their canonical habits, but during the remainder of the day appear in the most sumptuous apparel, and spend their time in such amusements as are consonant to their inclinations.

The magistracy of this city is composed of a mayor and ten echevins; and, being a place of considerable importance, it is furnished with a particular governor, and other subordinate officers, both civil and military. The principal manufacture is that of woollen stuffs: however, the merchants, many of whom are very opulent, carry on a considerable trade in various commodities.

The calamities of war have often been severely felt in Mons, and it has several times changed its masters. The French, Dutch, and Austrians, have by turns possessed themselves of it, and alternately been obliged to retire: every fresh rupture has exposed the wretched inhabitants to the horrors of a siege; and the noblest structures have repeatedly been levelled with the ground.

On the demise of Charles II. of Spain, the French took possession of this place, as they had done of several other cities in the Netherlands; and maintained their ground till the year 1709, when it was invested by the Duke of Marlborough. The Marshals Villars and Boufflers, with the grand army, immediately put themselves in motion to relieve it: the Duke wheeled off from the city, and advanced to give them battle; and, coming up with them at the village of Malplaquet, a few miles south of Mons, boldly attacked them in their entrenchments, and entirely defeated them. The reduction of the city immediately followed, which was confirmed to Austria by the treaty of Utrecht. However, the French, under Marshal Saxe, again invested and carried Mons in 1746; but the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, again restored it to the Archducal family.

Namur, (in Latin *Namurum*) the capital of a county, an episcopal see, and a strongly fortified city, stands between two hills, at the confluence of the Sambre and the Maese. Forts erected on the most advantageous situations render this place prodigiously strong; however, it has frequently been obliged to surrender to different powers. Louis XIV. of France took it in 1692, after a siege of six days; but, in 1695, King William III. recovered it after a very bloody defence. It again fell under the power of the French on the demise of Charles II. of Spain, who held it till the treaty of Utrecht restored it to the House of Austria.

Austria. Philip ceded it in 1712 to the Elector of Bavaria; in 1715 it passed to the States General as one of the barrier towns; and in 1746 the French again made themselves masters of it, and maintained possession till the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

In our description of the Seven United Provinces we have given a concise history of the Netherlands in general; we shall therefore only observe in this place, that they originally consisted of seventeen provinces, seven of which being declared free and independent states, the other ten remained subject to the Spaniards till the Duke of Marlborough, general of the Allies, gained the memorable battle of Ramillies in 1706. After this decisive engagement, Brussels, the capital of the Low Countries, and several provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards Emperor of Germany, their sovereign; whose daughter, the Empress Queen, remained in the full possession of them till the war which broke out in 1741, when the French made an entire conquest of the whole country, except a part of the province of Luxemburg. The subsequent peace of Aix-la-Chapelle either confirmed or annihilated the pretensions of the belligerent powers; and the distribution of cities and provinces, as fixed at that period, may be seen by referring to the preceding table of divisions.

C H A P. X.

FRANCE.

THIS kingdom obtains its name from the Franks, a German nation, who in the fifth century, leaving their native country, possessed themselves of all Gaul from the Rhine to the mouth of the Loire; and is bounded by the English Channel and the Netherlands on the north; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, on the east; by the Mediterranean, and the Pyrenees, which divide it from Spain, on the south; and by the Bay of Biscay on the west; extending from the 43d to the 51st degree of north latitude, and from the 4th degree west to the 7th degree of east longitude.

Blessed with a salubrious air, a fertile soil, and an advantageous situation, few countries in the world can be more agreeable or desirable; and were the civil, political, and religious constitutions, founded on the broad basis of liberty and toleration, France would possess the most irresistible charms, and the most attractive qualities. But while we confess that the air in general is mild and wholesome, and the soil abundantly fertile, we would not be understood to mean that it is universally so. In the former respect, indeed, the natives have been but too successful in giving the inhabitants of other countries wrong prepossessions: however, the weather is more serene and uniform than in Great Britain; and those sudden transitions from heat to cold, so frequently experienced in our island, and which must have a considerable effect on tender constitutions, are seldom experienced in this country.

Though France produces corn, wine, and oil; a variety of fruits of the highest flavour; and almost every luxury of life; the heats, in many places, parch up the ground, and destroy



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stroy the hopes of the year; and hence the poor inhabitants are often obliged to subsist on chestnuts and rye. But the precarious condition of property in this kingdom militates more fatally against universal plenty than all other causes combined; for it enervates the arm of honest industry, stifles every manly exertion, and leaves numbers to trust to the happy effects of a favourable season, or on failure of that, to the spontaneous bounty of nature. The French, however, have not been inattentive to promote the cause of agriculture; they have instituted different academies expressly for this purpose, and proposed premiums for its improvement: but such expedients, though partially serviceable, can never become of national utility, where he who sows is not sure of reaping the fruits of his labour.

The roots of this country are numerous, and excellently adapted to the taste of its inhabitants. Their sallads, and all kinds of seasoning, are likewise extremely plentiful; and, next to their vines, are the chief objects of their culture.

Almost every province produces plenty of wines, which are so well known as to render an enumeration of them unnecessary. Those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac, are peculiarly excellent; and there are few constitutions, however delicate, to which some one or other of them is not adapted.

Provence and Languedoc produce oil of olives; and these, and some other provinces, yield plenty of capers and prunes, which grow also in Bourdeaux and the vicinity of Toulon; and the northern provinces are famous for apples, from which the natives make vast quantities of cyder. On several parts of the sea-coast salt is manufactured; and from the herb kali, which is found in great plenty in Languedoc, abundance of pot-ash is made. Oak, elm, alh, and a variety of timber common to England, are found in most parts of France: however, from the great consumption of it in the article of fuel, the internal provinces of the kingdom begin to experience a scarcity.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, wolves excepted, which are not usually met with in Great Britain. The horses, black cattle, and sheep, however, are neither so numerous nor so valuable as those of England: the wool of their sheep is infinitely inferior; but, by a shameful traffic which the internal enemies of this country carry on, the French are supplied with numbers of our live sheep, with whose fleeces they are enabled to supply their manufactures, and even to rival us in the elegance and beauty of their stuffs.

Game of every species is extremely plentiful and good; and, what may seem a paradox, in France, which we are taught to consider as a land of perfect slavery, it is neither guarded by legal restrictions nor partial indulgences, as in England. The marine productions of France differ very little from those of the opposite coast of Britain, and are less numerous.

The principal mountains in this kingdom, or on its frontiers, are the Alps, which separate it from Italy; the Pyrenees, which bound it on the side of Spain; the Vauge, which divides Lorrain from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which lies between Franche Comte and Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in that of Auvergne.

Considering its extent, the rivers of France are neither very numerous nor capital; the principal,

principal, however, are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garrone, and the Seine. The Loire runs a north and north-west course, and falls into the sea at Nantz, after meandering about five hundred miles. The Rhone rises in Switzerland, rolls on south-west to Lyons; and then doubling, returns due south till it disembogues its stream into the Mediterranean near Arles: The Garonne issues from the Pyrenean mountains; and, taking first a north-easterly course, by means of a canal, the work of Louis XIV. communicates with the Mediterranean. The Seine, a contemptible stream when compared with the Thames, soon after its rise, flows towards the north-west, and in its course visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, at last falls into the English Channel at Havre. To these four capital rivers may be added the Saone, which forms a junction with the Rhone at Lyons; the Charant, which discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay at Rochfort; the Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English Channel below Abbeville; the Var, which, issuing from the Alps, forms a boundary between France and Italy, and discharges itself into the Mediterranean west of Nice; the Adour, which runs from east to west through Gascoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne; and the noble River Rhine, which originates in Switzerland, and forming the eastern boundary between France and Germany, receives the tributary streams of the Moselle and Sarte.

The natural advantages, both with respect to commerce and convenience, derived from the above rivers, have been vastly improved by the formation of several artificial rivers and canals, which may justly be deemed the principal glory of the reign of Louis XIV. The Canal of Languedoc, begun in 1666, and completed in 1680, was intended to open a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, to expedite the passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on with the most enterprising spirit, and at a prodigious expence, for upwards of an hundred miles, in spite of every obstacle nature threw in the way, yet it has never answered the original purpose. Other works of the same kind, however, are pregnant with national utility; particularly the Canal of Calais, which conveys travellers from thence to St. Omers, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and several other places; and that of Orleans, which runs a course of eighteen leagues, at once extremely beneficial to the public and productive to government.

France contains few lakes worthy of notice. However, we meet with one on the top of a hill near Alegre, which vulgar credulity supposes to be bottomless; another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and a third at La Besse, into which if a stone is thrown, it occasions a tremendous noise resembling a clap of thunder.

France has long been peculiarly famous for its mineral waters. Those of Bareges, on the frontiers of Spain, are at present the most esteemed for their various sanative and restorative qualities. We should probably be supposed to deal in the marvellous, were we to recount their real or pretended virtues: this, however, we may safely aver, that they have, assisted by the salubrity of the air and soil, performed many remarkable cures. At an inconsiderable distance from these last-mentioned springs are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which many people of fashion resort every spring and autumn. The waters of Sultzbach,

Sultzbach, in Alsace, are celebrated for curing the palsy, stone, and nervous disorders. Forges in Normandy, and St. Amand, are likewise famous for their springs; the latter for removing obstructions.

To enumerate all the remarkable springs in France, would be tedious and unentertaining: one, however, near Aigne, in Auvergne, deserves some notice. This curious spring, which is continually boiling to a violent degree, though almost destitute of taste, is of such a deleterious nature, that birds, on drinking it, instantly die: the cause of this phenomenon as yet remains undiscovered, naturalists neither accounting for it's extraordinary heat, nor the poisonous quality with which it is impregnated.

France contains several veins of the noblest metals: in Languedoc there are mines of gold and silver, and in Alsace some of silver and copper; but both are too expensive to be wrought to advantage. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are also found in several parts; and Brittany abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. A mine of oker has been discovered at Berry, which serves for melting metals, and dyeing the finest drab cloths. Excellent turquoises, the only precious stones France produces, are found in Languedoc: but marble and free-stone quarries are common in almost every province.

The French are slender, active, and well-proportioned; their hair and eyes are generally black, their complexions brown, and their stature rather lower than that of the neighbouring nations. The fair sex are more celebrated for the brilliancy of their wit and the gaiety of their dispositions, than for any personal attractions resulting from native beauty. The peasantry of both sexes are generally very ordinary, and form a remarkable and striking contrast to those of the same rank in Great Britain. The nobility and gentry, accomplished in the academical exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding, regard every foreigner with a secret contempt who is inferior to them in those respects: hence the specious is generally preferred to the real; and a man possessed of the highest mental acquisitions, if destitute of the external graces, appears to great disadvantage in this country. A few princes of the blood and great nobility possess very ample fortunes, and are more magnificent in their palaces and equipage than any of the English; but, in point of opulence, elegance, and expence, the other ranks are despicable when put in competition with their neighbours.

The general characteristics of the French nation are well known. Vanity is their predominant principle: a quality which, though highly ridiculous in itself, is not without it's advantages among this people; it prompts them to actions which real courage ought to inspire, and enables them to support misfortunes without the aid of philosophy. However, this character is hardly to be traced among the lower ranks, at least not in the same proportion as in the higher; for though the higher and middle ranks produce many illustrious individuals, excellent officers, both naval and military, who are stimulated by this enthusiasm to dare even impossibilities, few instances occur of determined perseverance and firmness in their soldiers; hence the well-known observation, That the French officers will lead if their soldiers will follow, and the English soldiers will follow if their officers will lead.

In

In their private conversation, the French affect freedom, gaiety, and wit: however; their ideas seldom rise higher than fashionable dresses and diversions; being restricted from displaying their political abilities, that inexhaustible fund of English conversation, by the apprehension of spies, and the dread of punishment.

The gallantry of this nation is of a very different complexion from that practised in England; consisting of gross servility and adulation on the part of the men, and kept up on that of the ladies by admitting many indelicate freedoms. Indeed, to a stranger, their manners in this respect would indicate an universal depravity, and a disregard of female honour, both in the single and married; however, though they violate the laws of due decorum on almost every occasion, they are as seldom guilty of incontinence as other nations among whom the public intercourse between the sexes is more rigid and ceremonious.

Insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious, in prosperity, the people of this country seem to forget the instability of all human affairs; and when any reverse of fortune happens, they support it with apparent indifference, seldom suffering despair to aggravate their calamities. Indiscriminately complaisant and officious, they have no idea of adapting their behaviour to the actual rank or character of the persons with whom they converse: hence they often commit the most egregious blunders; disgust those whom they attempt to please; and, by one continued round of unmeaning, fulsome compliments, render themselves truly ridiculous in the eyes of men of sense and discernment.

Insincerity has likewise been charged on the French, a crime from which they are probably as free as other nations; however, the excess of their civility gives a colour to this imputation, and throws the shade of suspicion on their candour. In private life, it must be acknowledged, they have given numerous instances of generosity, veracity, and disinterestedness; but if we contemplate the character of their government, from which the virtues or vices of nations are generally estimated, we must own that a restless ambition, together with a total want of faith and principle, have ever been it's predominant features.

It is but just, however, to acknowledge, that the French have unquestionably given a polish to the ferocious manners, and even humanized the virtues, of surrounding nations. Placed at the head of taste, fashion, and dress, they have introduced milder habits into society, and given a sentimental turn to the modes of conversation. But, if a diffusion of French manners has softened the asperity of virtue, it has likewise taught vice to insinuate itself with less difficulty; and, under the guise of polished manners, and sentimental expression, the most corrupt passions of the heart have only secured an easier mode of gratification, and become less formidable than when they appeared with hardened effrontery. From these combined circumstances, therefore, we may safely conclude, that a refinement of manners is only another term for varnishing vice; and that, wherever too great an attention to the minutiae of external ceremony is established, the nation is rapidly verging to effeminacy and decay. The intercourse between France and Britain of late years is not only apparent in our dress, our amusements, and gallantries, but it seems also to have had a pernicious effect on our national courage, and patriotic partiality. To esteem his own country superior to any other in the universe, and boldly to defend it's rights, were formerly the distinguishing characteristics of a Briton; but, from a vain predilection for continental refinements,

ments, the contempt of arbitrary power becomes less violent, and the *amor patriæ* seems no more to influence the sensual bosoms of modern Englishmen.

To what we have already advanced respecting the manners and customs of the French, we shall subjoin the remarks of an ingenious and well-informed modern writer, who thus depicts several distinguishing peculiarities observable in private life among this very whimsical people.

‘The natural levity of the French,’ says this gentleman, ‘is reinforced by the most preposterous education, and the example of a giddy people engaged in the most frivolous pursuits. A Frenchman is taught by some priest or monk to read his mother tongue, and to say his prayers in a language he does not understand. He is accomplished in dancing and fencing by the masters of those sciences; to which if he adds some knowledge of music, he esteems himself irresistible. But he piques himself most on being polished above the natives of any other country by his conversation with the fair-sex. In the course of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns, like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments; which consist of nothing more than a set of phrases ridiculous to excess, and those he throws out indiscriminately to all women, without regard to age, place, or circumstance. By the frequent repetition of this exercise, he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. Being accustomed to gallantry from his earliest infancy, a Frenchman becomes perfectly acquainted with the very minutiae of female customs and humours; and, apparently by instinct, performs a thousand little offices to serve them, which men, whose time has been spent in making more valuable acquisitions, would entirely overlook. He enters a lady’s bedchamber, while she is in bed, without ceremony, reaches her whatever she wants, airs her shift, and thinks himself guilty of no indecorum in officiously assisting to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the distribution of her patches, and directs where she may paint with the happiest effect. Should he enter when she is dressed, and perceive the least impropriety in her *coiffure*, he insists on adjusting it with his own hands. Constantly furnished with a comb, scissors, and pomatum, if he sees a curl, or even a single hair, amiss, he immediately sets about rectifying it with all the dexterity of a professed *friseur*. He attends her to every place of public or private resort, whether on business or on pleasure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her service, renders himself absolutely the slave of her caprices, and the minion of her pleasures.

‘Such is the genuine character of a Frenchman of taste. A coxcomb by profession, impertinent through the extravagance of his politeness, and the humblest vassal of female vanity, while he is ministering to the gratification of his own. In short, a French *petit maître* (and of that description are all in general from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbiere* covered with meal) is one of the most idle, insignificant, and foppish creatures, that creation can afford.

‘A Frenchman values his hair more than his God, and will sooner pawn his shirt than part with his *queue*. Even the very *cannaille*, the boy who cleans shoes at the corner of the street, and the beggar who drives his ass, all are alike partial to a long tail depending behind, though perhaps they may be destitute of a shirt and breeches.

‘ But this partiality, however ridiculous, is perhaps less criminal than another equally universal, at least in one sex, which we are about to mention; that is, paint, which seems to carry human affectation to the farthest verge of folly and extravagance. In other countries, it is true, some part of the fair-sex use *fard* and vermilion to mend a bad or a faded complexion, to heighten their natural graces, or to conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time, and even this will appear disgusting and artificial to every lover of nature; but in France, where fashion prescribes it to all ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of distinction, the practice becomes odious and detestable, and every spectator who has a relish for real beauty must be hurt at the reflection. As to *fard*, or white, with which the neck and shoulders are plaistered, it may in some measure be excusable to conceal a skin naturally fallow, and might be laid on from a desire of appearing more agreeable; but the *rouge*, which bedaubes their faces from the chin up to the eyes, without the least art or dexterity, destroys all distinction of features, renders the aspect really frightful, and excites nothing but ideas of disgust and aversion. Yet this horrible mask forms the only distinction of rank; and without it no married lady is admitted at court, or into any polite assembly; nor dare any of the lower classes assume this badge.’

To expatiate upon the Gallic modes of dress would be needless, as that of both sexes is well known; however, it is so variable in cities and towns, that no particular description can be given of it. In this respect, the French certainly possess a fertility of invention superior to their neighbours, and the frequent varying of their fashions is unquestionably of infinite service to their manufactures. The cheapness of the dress and ornaments of both sexes gives them a decided superiority over other nations, particularly the English, and allows the indulgence of a whimsical taste without incurring disproportionate expences.

A stranger, of whatever country, has no sooner arrived in Paris, than he finds it indispensably necessary to send for the various tradesmen concerned in the equipment of the human body. The minutest articles of dress must be adapted to the reigning Parisian fashion; even the buckles, and the form of the ruffles, must be changed, and the cloaths must be suited to the mode of the season, though at the risk of the wearer's life. The inclemency of the weather must never be an apology for not wearing his *habit d'été*, or *demi saison*; nor must he presume to put on a warmer dress before the day which fashion has prescribed for that purpose; and neither old age nor infirmity will justify a man for wearing a hat on his head either at home or abroad. From these capricious decrees of fashion it is not to be supposed the ladies are excluded: their *saques* and *negligées* must periodically be altered and new-trimmed; their caps, laces, and shoes, must likewise be new, and their hair cut according to the last-adopted mode. They must have their *taffaties* for the summer, their flowered silks for the spring and autumn, and their *fattins* and *damasks* for winter. In the lightness of their apparel the men too must be wholly directed by the seasons. They must provide themselves with suits of *camblet* trimmed with silver for spring and autumn, silk cloaths for summer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet, for winter; and their bag-wigs must be worn *à la pigeon*. In a word, this variety of dress is absolutely necessary for all those who pretend to any thing above the mere vulgar. From the king to the beggar, all ranks

ranks indiscriminately use powder; and even the very *cannaille*, according to their abilities, ape their superiors in the fopperies of fashion. The common people, however, in the country, still retain, without any material deviation, the antiquated modes of dress, the large hat, the enormous jack-boot, and prodigious spurs; and even within a few leagues of Paris this contrast begins to be perceptible. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, physicians and merchants, generally dress in black; and the French nation in general, in their modes and dress, are governed by commercial circumstances, which is, indeed, a proof of commendable policy. Perhaps it is not a little to be regretted, that most of their absurdities have of late years been almost universally adopted among us, without the smallest regard to the political motives by which they are actuated, and which with us are fatally reversed.

The established religion of France, since the revocation of the Edict of Nantz is the Roman Catholic; in the profession of which their kings have been so uniformly constant, that they have obtained from the Pope the title of Most Christian, and The Eldest Son of the Church. The Gallican church, however, has more than once attempted to emancipate itself from the papal yoke; and, in the reign of Louis XIV. had nearly effected it's purpose: but it was finally defeated by the secret bigotry of that haughty monarch; who, whilst he was awing the Pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jesuits, a society now totally exterminated from that kingdom. But though the French clergy restrict the authority of the Pope to matters purely spiritual, they are in general very inimical to any thing that has the appearance of reformation; and, being possessed of immense property, should government even wish to amend the ecclesiastical establishment, it would be a very dangerous attempt, without the fullest unanimity between the king and his parliaments.

Notwithstanding Popery is the only religion tolerated in this kingdom, there are still a vast number of secret Protestants, commonly called Hugonots, in Dauphiné, Languedoc, and some other provinces, who are obnoxious to the most grievous cruelties and persecutions from the intolerance of the clergy and magistrates; they perform their religious exercises with the same dread as if they were perpetrating the most heinous crimes, and venture to assemble only in private cellars, and places remote from public view. In Alsace, however, the Protestants are openly tolerated by virtue of a treaty; and in many places the Jews meet with no molestation. Indeed, the freedom of writing, which may be said to have first been introduced into France by M. De Voltaire, has in modern times tended considerably to soften the rage of religious bigotry; and whilst it has made Deism fashionable among the pert free-thinkers, has in a great measure rescued conscientious Christians from the scourge of intolerant zeal.

The following Articles exhibit the extent of papal authority in this country.

- I. In temporal affairs, neither the sovereign, his officers, nor magistrates, are subject to any church discipline inflicted either by the bishops, or their supreme head the Pope.
- II. The Pope's jurisdiction in France is bounded by the king's pleasure; his nuncios and *legates à latere* are only regarded as envoys from the court of Rome to that of France; and cannot, by virtue of any papal mandate, intermeddle with civil affairs, unless

unless such mandate has previously received the king's sanction, and has been registered in due form in parliament.

III. The convention and holding of all ecclesiastical assemblies, with the confirmation of their decrees, depend on the civil power; nor is the concurrence of the Pope necessary to give them validity.

IV. The king may enact laws which merely concern the ecclesiastical constitution, and limit the exercise of clerical power; and, without the king's permission and ratification, no law of the church, either framed by the bishops or the Pope, can subject any one to external penalties or punishments, or even to church discipline.

V. The Pope is denied the privilege of levying money in France on any pretence whatever, except the fees and imposts allowed him by the *concordat*; though the king may tax the clergy without the papal sanction, a privilege which most other Catholic princes are obliged to purchase by paying a quota of such tax to the holy see.

VI. No ecclesiastical foundations, nor any new order of monks and nuns, can be introduced without the royal fiat; and the rules of such order must remain subject to the cognizance and amendment of the civil power.

VII. The king has the sole nomination of all archbishops and bishops, abbots and priors; except, with respect to the latter, where the convent is indulged with the choice of its own superior.

VIII. The ecclesiastical jurisdiction is subordinate to the civil power; so that appeals from the decisions of the ecclesiastical courts may be brought before parliament.

This kingdom contains eighteen archbishops; an hundred and thirteen bishops; twenty-two thousand two hundred and ninety-one parochial and other priests; seven hundred and seven abbeys for men; three hundred and seventeen priories and abbeys for women, besides an infinite number of other convents; together with two hundred and fifty commanderies of the order of Malta. The aggregate number of monks and nuns is computed at upwards of an hundred and ninety thousand, whose revenues are said to exceed an hundred million of livres; while the annual income of the archbishops and bishops amounts to four millions three hundred and thirty-seven thousand livres. Indeed, from the best calculations, it appears that the ecclesiastics compose an eightieth part of the population of the whole country, to the support of which their emoluments are in general perfectly adequate. The Archbishop of Lyons is count and primate of France; the Archbishop of Sens is primate of France and Germany; the Archbishop of Paris is duke and peer of the realm; and the Archbishop of Rheims is duke and peer, as well as legate, of the see of Rome.

The schemes of Louis XIV. to establish an universal monarchy are well known to have failed; but his attempts to render the French language universal have been attended with all the success that could be desired. Every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of his native tongue was attentively listened to by this great monarch, a circumstance which tended equally to his greatness and his glory; for, by its general diffusion, his court and nation gradually became the school of arts, sciences, and politeness. The French language at present is chiefly composed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many of German origin introduced by the Franks. Modern authors seem neglectful of that grammatical

grammatical precision which was established under Louis XIV. a loose mode of writing and expression is daily gaining ground; and those essential qualities, which can alone render a language classical and permanent, are daily falling into disuse. The English language, on the contrary, seems to be improving to the utmost, and promises speedily to become a fashionable study throughout Europe: its nervous beauties; its aptitude for great and elevated subjects; and, above all, its copiousness and expressiveness; give it a just superiority over the French tongue, the highest praise of which consists in its being well accommodated to unmanly dalliance, unmeaning compliments, and ordinary conversation.

Though the French have possessed a superior taste for literature from the earliest ages, what they at first acquired was only a subtle and quibbling logic, neither beneficial to the improvement of the understanding, the correction of the taste, nor the regulation of the affections. By degrees, however, the study of the Greek and Roman classics, which first began in Italy, having diffused itself among the French, gave a new turn to their literary pursuits, and paved the way to the attainment of genuine taste. During the reign of Francis I. one of the earliest patrons of literature, many learned men started up, whose labours are well known and deservedly esteemed. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century, that this nation began to shine with full lustre. The *Academie Françoise*, expressly instituted for the purpose of improving the language, was of infinite service to literature: the French, from that period, began to write with elegance and precision; their native language was studied with a grammatical minuteness, and some authors soon displayed all its most captivating graces.

The reign of Louis XIV. was the Augustan age in France; and though that monarch is supposed to have expended no more than twelve thousand pounds sterling yearly in pensions on literary merit, it gained him more lasting glory than all his military enterprises, which cost him so many men and so many millions of money. Under his auspices, such a number of learned men appeared, that it is almost impossible to particularize their very names in a work of this nature. The tragic poets Racine and Corneille, each distinguished for his peculiar graces, and both for their propriety of character, elegance of taste, and strict adherence to dramatic rules, next to the Greek tragedians, are the most perfect models on earth. The comic poet Moliere, from the multiplicity of his works, might have been supposed to have exhausted the subject of comedy, did not human nature, by continually varying its pleasures and pursuits, ever present fresh characters for praise or reprehension. In works of satire and criticism, Boileau is perhaps unrivalled. And, in short, in every species of composition, the French are inferior to no European nation, except that they have not yet produced an epic poem which can at all be compared with Milton's; or a genius of the same universal nature with our immortal Shakespeare, equally adapted for the gay, the serious, the witty, or the sublime.

In the eloquence of the pulpit, the French are confessedly our superiors; witness the works of Bourdaloue, Bouffet, Flechier, and Massillon. The genius, however, of their government and religion, is extremely unfavourable to the prosecution of useful discoveries and improvements, for enlightening the human mind, and giving it a prospect of its own importance. That humiliating maxim—'Ignorance is the mother of Devotion,' is strictly observed by the clergy; and it is no less the interest of government to conceal the

natural rights and immunities of mankind. Hence, France has produced but few good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects. But neither superstition nor despotism have been able to check the career of some superior and elevated minds. Pascal and Fenelon did honour to religion, as well in their writings, as in their lives. Montesquieu is not only an honour to France, but to human nature; and had he lived in the days of a Solon or Lycurgus, his name would have been transmitted to posterity as one of the most illustrious legislators that ever appeared.

Voltaire and D'Argens, in the belles lettres, bear the highest reputation; and, till our immortal Newton appeared, Descartes was placed at the head of philosophy: he indeed paved the way to Newton's discoveries, by first applying algebra to the solution of geometrical problems; and on that account, though his philosophical principles were founded on a wrong conception of things, he deserves no inconsiderable share of fame.

In natural philosophy, Buffon is one of the most agreeable writers that ever appeared, his language being as beautiful as his researches are judicious. The late D'Alembert, to all the precision of a deep geometrician, united the talents of a fine writer; and, in his noble contempt of honours and emoluments, even when pressed upon him by the munificent Catherine of Russia, he perhaps shewed as great independence and contempt of worldly dignity as the most celebrated philosophers of antiquity.

The age of Louis XIV. produced several eminent painters, particularly Poussin, Le Brun, and Le Sueur; and though modern times have not given birth to any who can be compared to these great masters, there are still many artists who support their national honour. Sculpture in general is well understood in France; and in the theory of engineering, ship-building, and architecture, this nation stands unrivalled; though, in most cases, the English excel them in practice.

In France are twenty-six universities, Aix, Angers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantz, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouson, Richlieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Thoulouse, and Valence. Paris alone contains eight academies; namely, three for literary pursuits, that called the French Academy, that of Inscriptions, and that of Sciences; one for Painting and Sculpture; another for Architecture; and three for Equitation and other military exercises. Literary institutions, however, in this kingdom, have received an irreparable loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits; an order of men who made the languages, arts and sciences, their particular study, and taught them with assiduity and success. Formerly every affair of consequence relative to the state was decreed and enacted by the three states of the kingdom, consisting of the representatives of the clergy, the nobility, and the deputies of citizens; but the oppressions of the great landholders by degrees grew so irksome to the subject, that the aristocratical form of government was hardly regarded as a blessing. However, aristocracy subsisted in a certain degree till the commencement of the last century: but Cardinal Richlieu, minister of Louis XIII. gave it a mortal blow; and, since that period, the civil disputes in France have been between the great men for power and place. Though parliaments are still kept up, they have not the least analogy to those of Great Britain: they maintain the name without the exercise of power; and, by being
made

made subservient to the ends of government, are only the ministers of their own disgrace. To register and promulge the royal edicts seems to be the chief end of their continuance; and though, at various periods, they have had the virtue and public spirit to assert their original independence, their efforts have always ended in unavailing struggles and unheeded remonstrances.

The kingdom of France is divided into thirty governments, over each of which a king's lieutenant-general and superintendant preside. Distributive justice is administered by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, presidial courts, generalities, elections, and several other courts.

The parliaments are properly fifteen in number; namely, those of Paris, Thoulouse, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Mets, Besançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras: however, several of these are now united in one; whilst that of Paris, by an edict published in 1771, is branched out into six parliaments, under the denomination of superior courts. The parliament of Paris is the chief, and takes the lead in all national concerns. It is divided into Ten Chambers, each having peculiar jurisdiction. The Grand Chamber is chiefly appropriated for the trial of peers; the Tournelle Civile decides in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres; and the Tournelle Criminelle receives and determines appeals from inferior courts in criminal cases. These are the three principal chambers; besides which, there are five courts of request, for receiving the depositions of witnesses, and the decision of causes by equity.

On the subject of public revenues nothing can be said with precision in a government unrestrained by any known laws. In 1716, the entire specie of France was computed to be about seventeen millions sterling; and though the crown at that time was in a state of bankruptcy, by laying hold of almost all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raising or sinking the value of coins, in four years time a general state of the public debts was published, by which it appeared that the king scarcely owed three hundred and forty millions of livres. Indeed, under every national emergency, the same modes of raising money, or of liquidating debts, are universally adopted. The monarch issues his edict, and a certain sum must be raised, under the appellation of free gifts, loans, or other similar pretexts; and if these plans should happen not to be sufficiently productive, the value of money is either raised or sunk, according to the wants of government. National bankruptcies, and the most arbitrary oppressions, are adopted, which shake the foundation of trade, commerce, and agriculture, and give an irrecoverable wound to public credit, faith, and honour.

The annual revenues of France, ordinary and extraordinary, according to the computation of their own financiers, amount to about six millions sterling: but this estimate is probably too low; and, perhaps, were we to fix it at eight millions, it would not much exceed the real amount.

The ordinary taxes are raised by the *taille*, or land-tax; the *taillon*, another land-tax, which both the nobility and commons are obliged to pay; by aids on merchandize; by gabels, which is a tax on salt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of estates and employments; by the sale of offices of justice; by confiscations and forfeitures; and by a tenth

tenth or free gift of the clergy, exclusive of the annual sum of twelve millions of livres, which that body has lately advanced for the service of government.

Many of these taxes or revenues are let or farmed, for a term of years, to the best bidders. Those harpies, the farmers-general, fleece the wretched inhabitants without mercy or dread of censure; and what little remains generally goes to satisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who submit, in their turn, to the most rigorous imposts.

These arbitrary and despotic exactions counteract every natural advantage which this kingdom enjoys. Neither the salubrity of the climate, the fertility of the soil, nor the progress of manufactures, can contend against rapacity and injustice; and hence the towns in this country, a very few excepted, exhibit a dismal and solitary appearance. The shops are mean to excess, when compared with those of Britain; and the passengers, who saunter through dirty and neglected streets, appear to be principally composed of priests and devotees returning from periodical exercises of devotion, and an assemblage of hair-dressers, beggars, and *canaille*. In every indication of wretchedness, the peasants and farmers even exceed the citizens: amidst the profusion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exist upon the gleanings of the land they cultivate; and their cattle, which are generally few in number, pick a scanty subsistence, during the summer months, from the margins of their fields. The farmer, meagre and depressed, exhibits a spectacle of uncommon misery; and when a traveller of humanity beholds him plowing the fields, in which he has but a precarious property, with a cow, an ass, and a goat, yoked together, he cannot forbear dropping the tear of pity for his fate, and execrating that government which, instead of protecting, seems to abandon its subjects.

The art of war is no where better understood than in France; particularly that part of it which relates to gunnery and fortification. Besides a variety of prudent expedients for cultivating its practice, there is a royal academy established purposely for training up five hundred young gentlemen at a time in the knowledge of the various branches of this useful art. In time of peace, the crown of France maintains about two hundred thousand men; which, however, cost government but an inconsiderable sum, the pay of a common soldier being little more than twopence halfpenny a day. In time of war, four hundred thousand men have been brought into the field; but many of them make a very poor appearance, particularly those raised from the militia.

At some former periods, and particularly in the late war with Great Britain, the French navy has been very formidable: but though their officers are perfectly versed in the arts of their profession, and men of unquestionable courage and conduct, they have seldom been able to withstand the British, who have generally come off victorious. One engagement, indeed, at the commencement of the late contest, is an exception to this general observation; but, though its event reflects indelible disgrace on the conduct of the commanders, it cannot affect our national reputation for bravery.

The king assumes simply the titles of King of France and Navarre; and, in addresses from his subjects, is styled Sire, or Lord, as a mark of his unlimited power: but foreigners bestow on him the appellation of The Most Christian King, or, His Most Christian Majesty. About the year 1349, Hubert, Count Dauphin of Viennois, having accidentally been the
cause

cause of his own son's death, annexed that country to the crown of France by will, on condition that the presumptive heir to the throne should be styled Dauphin.

The French king (to adopt the idea of that nation) never dies; for no sooner are the eyes of one closed, than the next prince of the blood succeeds to the throne, and is instantly invested with supreme authority: but should the successor happen to be a minor, (that is, under fourteen years of age) the administration of government is committed to a regent, usually the queen-mother, or a prince of the blood, unless the deceased king has nominated one in his will.

When a new king enters his fourteenth year, he is conducted to the parliament of Paris with the greatest magnificence, attended by the princes of the blood, the peers, and the high officers of state. This assembly obtains the name of his Bed of Justice, and by it he is declared of age: however, the regent frequently procures a prolongation of power, and continues to govern till his majesty thinks proper to assume the reins of government himself.

The arms of France are, Three Fleurs-de-lys, Or, in a field, Azure, supported by two Angels habited as Levites, each holding a banner in his hand charged with the same arms; the crest is an open Crown; the whole under a grand azure pavilion strewn with fleurs-de-lys, Or and Ermine; and over it a close ground with a double fleur-de-lys, Or, on the sides of which are flying streamers bearing the words, '*Mon joie S. Dennis;*' and above them, on the royal banner, or oriflame, appears, '*Lilia non labarant neque nent.*'

The king is crowned at Rheims by the archbishop of that city, assisted by five other ecclesiastical peers, and six noblemen who represent the six ancient lay-peers of France. The anointing oil, according to a ridiculous tradition, was brought from Heaven by a dove, and is kept in a phial called the Holy Bottle. The crown of Charlemagne, a ponderous piece of regalia, is first placed on the king's head, but immediately exchanged for another of a more commodious size. The other ensigns of royalty are, the Sceptre, which he wields in his right-hand; and the Hand of Justice, a staff about two feet long, with an ivory handle, which he holds in the left. The former is used on all days of ceremony; the latter only at the coronation.

The French nobility are divided into four classes: the first includes the princes of the blood, consisting of the House of Orleans, the two branches of the House of Bourbon, those of Condé and Conti, together with such of the king's natural children as have been legitimated. To the second class belong the high nobility, dukes and peers of the realm; and with them are ranked the principal officers of the court, the knights of the Holy Ghost, and the governors and lieutenant-generals of provinces. The third class is composed of the common ancient nobility, who in some provinces are styled Nobles, but in general only Ecuyers: these are divided into the *noblesse de race* and the *noblesse de naissance*; the first are those whose ancestors have held employments which confer nobility an hundred years at least; and the second are those nobles whose ancestors were created such, and from whose patent it appears they were commoners. The fourth class consists of the new nobility, whom the king has raised by patent, or ennobled by employment; and to this class are

referred the king's secretaries, the counsellors of the parliament of Paris, and of other high tribunals in that city; the Etchevins, or chief magistrates, of cities, and the military nobility.

In France are three orders of knighthood. First, that of St. Michael, instituted in 1469, consisting originally of thirty-six members, but afterwards enlarged to an hundred. Secondly, the order of the Holy Ghost, founded in 1578 by Henry III. composed of an hundred persons besides the sovereign, and only conferred on princes of the blood, and persons of the highest rank who must have previously been admitted to the order of St. Michael. And, thirdly, the order of St. Louis, instituted in 1693 by Louis XIV. merely as a distinction for military merit, and worn by an unlimited number of officers, including even subalterns.

The French commerce and manufactures are in general in a very flourishing state, and regarded with an attention which their importance deserves. Henry IV. laid the foundation of trade; and on this the great Colbert, minister of Louis XIV. raised a lasting superstructure. Under his administration France seemed likely to become as illustrious for trade as eminent for war. However, the genius of this people is not so well calculated for the arts of commerce as that of some of their neighbours: they want that persevering industry which is necessary for the extension of trade; and though they exceed every nation in the theoretic knowledge of commerce and colonization, they are generally deficient in their practice. It must, however, be allowed, that France, from its advantageous situation and natural products, will always make a figure in trade; and no indolence can withstand the temptations which the affluence resulting from commerce presents.

To the productions of this country already enumerated, we may add her manufactures of saltpetre, silk, embroidery, tapestry, cambrics, lawns, laces, serges, velvets, brocades, paper, and brandy distilled from wine; besides a prodigious variety of toys and other fripperies, many of which are smuggled into Britain.

Before the reign of Henry IV. the silk manufacture was scarcely known in France; but so rapidly did it afterwards increase, that in the reign of his grandson Louis XIV. the city of Lyons alone employed 18,000 looms. However, the unjust and impolitic revocation of the Edict of Nantz, the expulsion of the Protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, decreased the number of manufacturers in a very high degree, so that their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French refugees found encouragement and protection.

The French trade to the different countries of Europe is extensive and lucrative; and, in general, the balance is in their favour. In the West Indies they possess several valuable and important islands, from which they derive immense benefit. In the East Indies they likewise retain several advantageous settlements: but a partiality for the parade of war has often materially injured the progress of their trade in that quarter of the globe; and, indeed, to vanity and ambition they have even sacrificed the best interests of their country, as well as the happiness of individuals.

Accounts are kept in France in livres, sols, and deniers. One livre contains twenty sous, and one sol twelve deniers. The French livre is valued at ten-pence halfpenny. One sol is worth an halfpenny; consequently one denier is the sixth part of a farthing.

Three

Three deniers make a liard, which is a small copper coin. The silver coin is the *ecu*, or crown, equivalent to three livres, about the value of our half-crown. A *louis blanc* is estimated at five shillings. The gold coins are, the *louis d'or*, of one pound value. There are also double and half *louis*. A *pistole* is equivalent to eight shillings and four pence.

In our description of the principal cities in this extensive kingdom, we shall begin with the capital; which having been often visited and delineated by many able writers, a very minute account of it will be superfluous.

Paris, (in Latin *Lutetia*, *Pariffi* and *Lutetia Parisiorum*) the capital of France, is situated on a spacious plain watered by the River Seine, in the middle of the Isle of France, in 48 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and in 2 degrees 25 minutes east longitude of London, from which it is distant about two hundred and twenty-five miles. This city is of a circular form; and, including the suburbs, it is about twenty miles in circumference. It consists of three grand divisions, viz. the City, the University, and what formerly was distinguished by the name of the Town; which, collectively, are supposed to be peopled by about seven hundred thousand inhabitants. The splendid edifices of Paris are certainly very numerous; but many of them answer the purposes of ostentation rather than utility. The churches, abbeys, priories, convents, hospitals, universities, academies, libraries, royal palaces, castles, fountains, and bridges, are unquestionably fine, and liberally supported: but, compared with the public buildings of London, they are in most respects greatly inferior; for though, in general, they possess more external ornaments, they are vastly deficient in useful accommodations and munificent endowments. Paris, however, it must be confessed, is the paradise of splendor, and the vortex of dissipation: the gay, the polite, the honoured, and the affluent, find it a most desirable retreat; and, were a judgment to be formed from the looks of the inhabitants in general, it might be supposed to be the happiest place on earth. Every thing is sacrificed to shew; and Fashion, which seems to have wholly banished all intrusive cares, sports in her meridian glory.

But notwithstanding the superior brilliancy of some particular fabrics, the houses are in general wretchedly inconvenient, being lofty stone buildings, often inhabited by various families, and arranged in narrow streets, which even the strict police of Paris is incapable of keeping clean. These houses have chiefly brick floors, which are only sprinkled with water and swept once a day; with stone stair-cases, which are neither elegant nor wholesome. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask; which, with the thick party-walls of stone, render fires less alarming and rapid in their progress. The shops are meanly stored with goods, and their owners seldom appear before dinner in any other than a morning-dress; though, when they go abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to. Between this class of people and those of London there is a most striking contrast: for in Paris the women pack up parcels, enter orders, and execute the common drudgery of the shop; while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, the fashions and diversions, and considers himself as superior to the ordinary avocations of his business.

The

The Parisians are extremely temperate in their way of living; and, indeed, the natives of France in general regard intoxication as a scandalous and infamous crime. Provisions are plentiful and cheap; and the wine usually drank is a thin light species of Burgundy. The water of the Seine is often highly insalubrious, and sometimes fatal to strangers, with whom the common beverage also frequently disagrees. The vulgar, during the summer months, subsist principally on bread, butter, fruits, and vegetables. The use of tea is almost unknown; but coffee is plentiful and cheap.

Among the most considerable palaces in Paris, that of the Louvre is one of the finest. It is divided into the Old and the New. The old part of this royal edifice was begun by Francis I. in 1528, and finished by Henry II. in 1548. Succeeding monarchs enlarged and improved it; but the magnificent Louis XIV. ordered it to be rebuilt on a new plan, which, had it been completed, would have rendered it the most superb palace in Europe. The design of this structure forms an equilateral quadrangle, containing a central court three hundred and seventy-six feet square: the height of the new work is three stories; the first of the Corinthian, the second of the Composite, and the third of the Attic order.

Behind the Louvre stands the palace called the Tuilleries, built in 1564 by order of Queen Catharine de Medicis, consisting of a continuous range of building, with a dome in the centre, and a pavilion at each extremity. The space in front is divided into three courts adorned with columns, statues, and other princely decorations. Behind are beautiful gardens, laid out in the finest taste, and planted with the utmost variety of evergreens and other trees. They also contain three superb fountains, and a large octagonal canal, with a fine terrace towards the river an hundred perches long and eighty-four broad, planted with a triple row of trees, and affording an enchanting prospect of the adjacent country. These charming gardens are open to all who wear a bag and a sword; and, during the summer evenings, are much resorted to by all ranks who can procure the requisite qualifications.

The palace of Luxemburg, built by Queen Mary de Medicis, is one of the most regular pieces of architecture in all France. Among other noble decorations, it contains a gallery of fine paintings by the celebrated Reubens, who employed two whole years in completing them. The gardens are proportionably elegant; and, like those of the Tuilleries, are much frequented.

The royal palace built by Cardinal Richlieu, and presented to Louis XIII. consists of several sets of buildings with intervening courts, adorned likewise with beautiful gardens. In this structure are now held the courts of justice, the most illustrious of which is the parliament.

The Gobelins at Paris deserves attention rather for the utility of its institution than its architectural beauties. It was built by Gobelin, a celebrated dyer at Rheims, who removing to Paris in the reign of Francis I. discovered the secret of dyeing that beautiful scarlet called, after his name, the scarlet of Gobelin. Louis XIV. purchased his house, and some others adjoining, where he established a manufacture of the finest tapestries; and also settled a great number of gold and silver-smiths, embroiderers, painters, carvers, and other

other artificers, who are all under the direction of the superintendant of buildings, arts, and manufactures, of France.

With regard to churches, the most venerable and majestic is that of Notre Dame, a large Gothic structure, three hundred and ninety-six feet long, an hundred and forty broad, and an hundred and two high. This magnificent structure is supported by a vast number of pillars, those in the nave being adorned with large and beautiful pictures. The choir was splendidly repaired and ornamented at the expence of Louis XIV.

The church and nunnery of Val de Grace, founded by Queen Anne of Austria; the church formerly belonging to the Jesuits; and that of St. Eustace; are likewise beautiful structures; each containing it's respective ornaments and curiosities.

The university of Paris is said to have been founded in 791 by Charlemagne. It consists of more than thirty colleges; the most considerable of which are, the Sorbonne; the College of Navarre; the College of the Four Nations; and the Faculty, or College of Physic.

The Sorbonne was originally built in 1250, but rebuilt in a very magnificent stile by Cardinal Richlieu in 1629. It contains apartments for thirty-six doctors, with a library and hall for public lectures and acts. This is esteemed the strictest college in Europe; the degree of doctor being only given to those who hold the Sorbonnic act, that is, to answer all disputants from sun-rise to sun-set; on which account the title of Doctor of the Sorbonne is in great repute.

The College of Navarre was founded in 1305, by Jane Queen of Navarre, consort to Philip the Fair; and is nobly endowed.

The College of the Four Nations is the most magnificent in the whole university; and was designed for the reception of the sons of gentlemen, or eminent citizens of four different nations; namely, French, Italians, Spaniards, and Germans. The university adopted this college on condition that neither divinity, law, nor physic, should be taught in it; nor any academy annexed to it in which students might be taught to ride, fence, or dance.

The Faculty of Physic has a college; built in 1477, in which are five professors, who are annually elected. Letters are delivered at different hours on every subject connected with the healing art; and on Saturdays six doctors meet, in order to examine such of the poor as chuse to consult them; and the batchelors of physic are obliged to attend, on purpose to write the physicians prescriptions. The faculty is composed of all the doctors and licentiates who have taken their degrees at the university of Paris; and no others are suffered to practise in that city, unless by royal appointment. The nature and object of the Parisian academies having been already mentioned, we shall only observe, that though individual members have sometimes contributed essentially to the improvement of arts, sciences, and language, their collective labours have seldom been pregnant with discovery or utility. Indeed, the same may be said of almost every similar institution: party, prejudice, and envy, generally disunite the members; and the aspiring genius of one is frequently checked by the suspicious vigilance of another.

The most remarkable hospitals are those of Hotel Dieu, Trinity, the General Hospital, and the Hospital for Disabled Soldiers. The Hotel Dieu is the most ancient and extensive institution of the kind in Paris: to this hospital all sorts of patients are admitted, without regard to religion, country, or disease; and they are attended with the utmost tenderness by the nuns of the order of St. Ursula, who officiate as nurses. The Royal Hospital for Disabled Soldiers may be considered as a spacious palace, its site occupying upwards of seventeen acres: it is a noble and benevolent institution, for the support of lame and superannuated officers and soldiers; and the strict order and discipline observed in it justly claim the highest admiration.

The General Hospital stands in the suburbs of St. Victoire; a very benevolent foundation for the female sex, near seven thousand of whom are provided for in this place, and live under the inspection of sixty sisters; subordinate to whom are eighty governesses, and a considerable number of maid-servants. Here foundlings are received, who occupy one ward; girls and young women, who sew and knit; a great number of lewd women, who are compelled to spin woollen; some hundreds of female idiots; and many poor women of every age, who either live gratis, or pay a trifle for their admission.

To this admirable foundation belongs the castle of Bicetre; in which are near four thousand persons of the other sex; particularly poor men, who are entertained gratis, and some who pay for their reception into the house. Common prisoners are likewise confined here, in a separate house walled in, each being allotted a cell by himself.

Trinity Hospital was founded about the year 1202, by two friars, for the reception of poor travellers; but it is now principally applied to the maintenance and education of poor children of both sexes born in lawful wedlock. These are all taught to read and write; and, after they have attained to a proper age, are trained up to some trade within the hospital. This benevolent institution is under the government of five eminent persons, selected by the parliament out of ten presented to them by the attorney-general.

It is unnecessary to particularize the beauties of the different squares and bridges: of the former, that called La Place de Victoires, or the Square of Victories, is the most famous; and of the latter, the Pont Neuf, or New Bridge, consisting of twelve arches, is most admired.

In this city are several courts of extensive jurisdiction: the principal of which are, the parliament; a general court of the justices in eyre; a court of admiralty; and the court of the Chatelet, or the ordinary court of justice for the civil government of the city, of which the provost, with the four echevins or aldermen, and twenty-six counsellors, are judges.

The police of Paris is strict beyond conception. Quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happen; and strangers, of whatever country, language, or dress, are sure to experience the politest treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot, so judiciously stationed, that it is almost impossible for an offender to escape their vigilance: they visit every place of public accommodation precisely at twelve; after which time no liquor is permitted to be sold. The public roads throughout the whole kingdom are under the same excellent regulations; which, with the apprehensions of the rack, prevent robberies,

so

SISTERON Near Aix
South of France



so frequent in England; though, when they do happen, they are generally attended with the most horrid acts of barbarity.

The trade of Paris with the rest of the kingdom is pretty extensive; and it's foreign commerce is not only considerable, but highly lucrative. The manufactures of gold, silver, and silk stuffs, are of vast importance; nor are those of other stuffs, the fripperies of drefs, and looking-glasses, much inferior in point of advantage:

Paris has undergone many revolutions, having frequently suffered by war, fire, and civil commotions; and it was once considerably damaged by an inundation of the Seine. The environs are as delightful as fancy itself can imagine; and contain a number of fine seats, small towns and villages, enjoying in general a most enchanting situation.

The magnificent palace of Versailles, which stands about twelve miles from Paris, though grand and expensive to the last degree, and adorned with all that art and nature can supply, does not form an entire whole, according to the grand and sublime in architecture; but is more properly a collection of buildings, each finished in the highest stile of elegance.

The water-works at Marli, (which are worked by means of prodigious engines across the Seine) as well as the gardens, are amazing proofs of the fertility of human invention, and strike every stranger with astonishment.

The palaces of Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Trianon, Meudon, and others, are laid out in the finest taste, each possessing it's peculiar beauties, for the entertainment and accommodation of a court immersed in luxury and voluptuousness, destitute of genuine refinement, and studious only of superficial gratifications:

Aix, (in Latin *Aqua Sextia*) the capital of Provence, a populous and elegant city, containing superb structures of free-stone, stands in a spacious valley, in 45 degrees 54 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 10 minutes east longitude. This is an archiepiscopal see, containing two colleges, an university founded in 1409, an academy for the polite arts, and a number of convents. Being inhabited, especially in the winter, by a great number of nobility, Aix, for agreeable company, is only inferior to Paris itself. In the suburbs is a warm mineral spring once highly celebrated, which, after being lost for many ages, was again discovered in 1704, but the virtues for which it was originally famous have never thoroughly revived.

Arles, the *Arellas* and *Arelatum* of antiquity, a spacious and well-built city on the banks of the Rhone, in 43 degrees 32 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 45 minutes east longitude, is almost entirely surrounded with a morass, which renders the air thick and insalubrious. This city is an archiepiscopal see, and contains a number of stately edifices, having been anciently the capital of the kingdom of Burgundy: but it is now principally famous for the numerous remains of Roman architecture found there and in the vicinity; among which, an obelisk of oriental granite, fifty-two feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, of one stone, is none of the least remarkable. There are also the ruins of an amphitheatre supposed to have been built by Julius Cæsar, of an oval form, an hundred and ninety-four fathoms in circumference: the fragments of a circus, a Roman capitol, sepulchral

sepulchral monuments, urns, and sarcophagi, are likewise to be seen at Arles, with various other relics of antiquity.

Marseilles, (in Latin *Maffilia*), esteemed the second city of Provence with respect to extent, but the first for trade, and the most ancient of all, is said to have been of some note five hundred years before the Christian era. It is situated near the sea, at the foot of a rocky mountain, in 43 degrees 18 minutes north latitude, and in 5 degrees 27 minutes east longitude, being divided into the Old and New Town. This city is an episcopal see, and contains many beautiful structures, particularly the cathedral, (which is said to have been a temple of Diana) by far the most ancient of any in France. A fort at the entrance of the harbour affords a strong defence towards the sea: on the land-side the eye is presented with one of the most charming plains in the universe, adorned with an infinite number of country-seats, gardens, and vineyards, belonging to the most respectable citizens. Marseilles has a valuable manufacture of gold and silver stuffs, and is the centre of commerce to the Levant. In 1720 it was visited by a most dreadful pestilence, which raged with unabating fury near two years.

Toulon, a maritime city of considerable extent, stands on a bay of the Mediterranean Sea, forming a secure and commodious harbour, in 43 degrees 5 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 2 minutes east longitude. On the land-side it is defended by strong fortifications, and the harbour is also well protected by batteries. Louis XIV. from a paltry village, raised Toulon to a sea-port of the first consequence. Being principally intended for the reception of the royal navy, he spared no expence in the fortification both of the town and harbour. The old and new harbour lie contiguous; and, by means of a canal, ships pass from the one to the other, both having an outlet into the spacious exterior harbour. The arsenal, established by the same monarch, has a particular storehouse for every ship of war, it's guns, cordage, and ammunition, being separately disposed of. Spacious work-shops are provided for the different artizans; and the rope-walk, a triple work of stone arched over, is three hundred and twenty toises long. The general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular store-houses, and usually contains an immense quantity of every species of naval stores.

Avignon, (in Latin *Avenis*) the last place worth notice in Provence, is situated on the River Rhone, and is surrounded with a beautiful wall of free-stone; but has lost much of that splendor it enjoyed when it was the papal residence. In the church of the Franciscans is shewn the tomb of the beautiful and learned Laura, whose name is immortalized by the poetry and passion of the celebrated Petrarch. The cathedral contains several monuments of the popes, and the chair or throne they used while Avignon was their residence.

Grenoble (in Latin *Gratianapolis*) the capital of Dauphiné, is agreeably situated at the foot of a mountain on the River Isere, near the confluence of the Drac. This city is honoured with a Parliament, an Intendency, a Chamber of Accounts, a Court of Taxes, a Mint, and a Court of the Lord Treasurer of France. It is a pleasant and populous city, defended by a citadel called the Bastille, besides other auxiliary fortifications. Being an episcopal see, and the seat of several courts, it contains a variety of magnificent public buildings.

buildings, particularly the bishop's palace, the cathedral, courts of justice, arsenal, and general hospital.

About the distance of three leagues from Grenoble stands the grand Chartreuse, the most celebrated of all the convents belonging to the order of Carthusians. From that city two roads lead to it, both carried over steep rocks and hideous precipices, the terror of which is increased by the frightful roaring of the River Guyer la Mort, as it precipitates its course among them. The convent forms a spacious oblong square, and is environed on all sides with rocks and woody mountains. In the large hall of this convent is held an annual general chapter of the order of Carthusians. It contains many beautiful paintings, and some curious relics, particularly the Arm of St. Bueno, the founder of this order, whose body is said to be buried in Calabria.

Besançon, (in Latin *Vesontio*) the capital of Burgundy or Franche Comté, antecedent to the peace of Westphalia, was an Imperial city; but, since it has fallen into the hands of the French, has received many additional fortifications, which render it a place of considerable strength. It is an archiepiscopal see, and the seat of a parliament, but is not very remarkable either for population, beauty, or extent. In the vicinity are the ruins of an amphitheatre, an hundred and twenty feet in diameter; and some Pagan temples, with a triumphal arch dedicated to the Emperor Aurelian.

Straßburg, (in Latin *Argentoratum*) the capital of Alsace, is a royal, free, Imperial city, standing in 48 degrees 36 minutes north latitude, and in 7 degrees 41 minutes east longitude, about two miles from the Rhine, and is surrounded by the Rivers Ill and Breusch. The fortifications are not deemed very strong; but, by means of a sluice, the city may be laid under water. It is very large and populous, containing about thirty-two thousand houses, which in general are but indifferent structures. However, many of the public edifices are splendid and beautiful; and the cathedral in particular is a noble and ancient structure, containing a valuable collection of curiosities presented to it by Louis XIV. among which are many articles of immense value.

The city council is half Lutheran and half Catholic; but the burghers in general are of the Lutheran persuasion. The supreme magistrate, since the city has become subject to France, is the royal prætor, who maintains the prerogatives of his master, and takes care that the college of the magistrates enter into no scheme repugnant to his majesty's interest or pleasure. The king, however, reaps no pecuniary benefit from this city, for all the imposts levied here are expended in its support.

Nancy, the capital of the duchy of Lorrain, and the ancient ducal residence, is situated on a delightful plain near the River Meurte; and is divided into the Old and New Town. The former is small and inelegant; however, it contains the palace begun by Duke Leopold Joseph, which still remains imperfect; and in it are exhibited, as curiosities, the sabres of two Burgundians killed by Charles the Bold; and likewise that duke's helmet, which used to be carried every year in procession.

The New Town is large, the streets are broad and airy, and the houses beautiful, but low, conformable to the taste of this country. The cathedral, a modern pile, and immediately subject to the Pope, is stately and beautiful, being adorned with two towers and a

cupola after the Italian manner. The fortifications of Nancy were formerly of some importance; but, by the peace of Ryswic, these were dismantled.

Proceeding in order, we come to French Flanders; the principal places in which are the following.

Gravelines, a small but strong town, is situated at the mouth of the River Aa, and defended by a noble citadel and a fort towards the sea. It was taken and burnt by the English in 1383, but afterwards rebuilt and fortified with superior beauty and strength. From that period it frequently changed its sovereign, till it was again laid in ashes by the English fleet in 1694. The fortifications, however, have since been greatly improved by the celebrated Marshal de Vauban.

Lille, the capital of all French Flanders, situated on the Deule, is a large and beautiful place; being the residence of the governor-general, and containing a court of intendency, a mint, and several civil courts. Many of the public buildings are exquisitely beautiful; and the fortifications are remarkably strong, as was experienced in the reign of Queen Anne, when Prince Eugene sat down before it, after the battle of Oudenarde, and with difficulty took it in three months.

The trade of Lille through France by land-carriage, or by way of Dunkirk, is pretty considerable; but their commerce to Spain and the West Indies is by far the most advantageous.

Douay, a tolerable large and well-fortified city on the River Scarpe, is principally famous for its university, and a celebrated English seminary. Its principal trade consists in the manufacture of worsted camblets, which are bought up by all the neighbouring provinces, particularly at a large annual fair held in September. The magistracy consists of twelve *echevins*, the first of whom is honoured with the appellation of Chief. The city fell into the hands of the Confederates in 1710, but was lost again two years afterwards.

Cambray, (in Latin *Camaracum*) a well-fortified city, defended by a citadel and fort, and an archiepiscopal see, is particularly famous for its cambric manufacture, which derived its name from the place of its invention.

Dunkirk, a strongly fortified town on the River Colne, which falls into the British Channel at this place, is situated in 51 degrees 2 minutes north latitude, and in 2 degrees 27 minutes east longitude, twenty-six miles eastward of Calais. It was first encompassed with a wall, in the tenth century, by Baldwin Earl of Flanders; and, enjoying a harbour commodious for trade, the inhabitants improved their natural advantages, and by degrees became so opulent and powerful, that in the twelfth century they fitted out a small fleet against the Norman pirates, and achieved some eminent exploits; on which Philip Earl of Flanders conferred several considerable privileges on the town. In the thirteenth century it was purchased by the Archbishop of Cambray; and afterwards passing through various hands, it was by turns subject to the Empire, France, and Spain, till, in 1658, it was ceded to England by France, as a reward for assisting the last mentioned nation against the arms of Spain. In 1662, Charles II. King of England, sold the town to France for five millions of livres; by which compact Louis XIV. acquired also Mardyke, and other villages which the English had raised in the vicinity.

On

On this acquisition, Louis ordered the city to be well fortified, erected a citadel and fort, and put the harbour into a most excellent condition, which was defended at each extremity by batteries, forts, and other fortifications. The city soon becoming populous and flourishing, the English, for the protection of their commerce, which had suffered extremely from the privateers of Dunkirk, compelled France, at the peace of Utrecht, to agree to demolish the fortifications, and to fill up the harbour, which was never in future to be repaired. In conformity to this treaty, the French actually began to destroy the works; but it was soon discovered, or at least pretended, that, by filling up the harbour, the country, for ten leagues round, would be in danger of being overflowed. This serving as a plea for procrastination, several fruitless negotiations were carried on between the two nations; and the French still delaying to comply, the article relative to Dunkirk in the peace of Utrecht was inserted more fully in that of Aix-la-Chapelle. France, however, seemed only to have made concessions, that she might be able to violate their intent with less suspicion: the fortifications of Dunkirk were enlarged and strengthened, instead of being demolished; and, on the peace of 1763, their demolition was again made an article of convention. The recent war between Britain and that nation was too unpropitious to the former to permit her to expect such humiliating stipulations on the part of the latter: so that Dunkirk bids fair to be the best frequented port in the Channel; and will ever prove highly prejudicial to the best interests of Britain, both in peace and war.

Arras, the *Origiacum* of Ptolemy, and the *Atrebatæ* of Cæsar, a large and populous city of Artois, situated on the Scarpe, about twelve miles south-west of Douay, is divided into two parts, the one called the City, and the other the Town, both surrounded with old walls of prodigious strength, which received many repairs and additional improvements from the illustrious Vauban. The houses in general make a handsome appearance, the streets are spacious and elegant, and the inhabitants opulent and commercial. The manufactory of tapestry is very beautiful, though reckoned inferior to that at Paris, Brussels, and Antwerp. The public edifices are stately and magnificent; and, among the curiosities which superstition has invented, a chapel is shewn in the superb church of the abbey of St. Vast, in which was kept a candle pretended to have been given by the Blessed Virgin to the inhabitants, to cure an inward heat, which burned and consumed them.

St. Omer, (in Latin *Anomarpolis*) a considerable city on the Aa, standing partly on an eminence, and partly on a morass, is one of the best fortifications in the Netherlands, and an episcopal see.

This city contains many fine streets; and a spacious square lined with stately edifices, among which is the Town-house. The cathedral dedicated to St. Omer is a noble pile, and its chapels are highly ornamented with marble and paintings. On each side of the portico stands a square steeple of great height, where a constant watch is kept; and the gates are never opened till day-light, when the watch gives the signal that no enemy is in sight. The convents and nunneries are pretty numerous, and a seminary for English catholics is in high repute.

To the north-east of St. Omer's are several floating islands, which move backwards and forwards according to the motion imparted to them; a circumstance which has given rise

to

to a well-known geographical paradox. These islands being covered with grass, are frequently towed to shore, and cattle put to depasture on them.

Amiens, (in Latin *Ambianum*) the capital of Picardy, is seated on the Somme; and, from the spaciousness of its streets, and the elegance of its structures, exhibits a delightful appearance. The ramparts are planted with trees, which form a very agreeable walk; and the Somme entering the city by three different channels, after watering it in every quarter, unites its streams at the extremity of the place.

The cathedral dedicated to the Virgin Mary is highly embellished with pillars, chapels, tombs, and paintings; and, among other relics, the ecclesiastics belonging to it pretend to possess the heart of St. John the Baptist. The parochial churches and other public structures are splendid, and in good repair; and in this city several courts are held. The inhabitants carry on a manufacture of ferrets, and make a considerable quantity of curious black and green soap.

Abbeville, the capital of Ponthieu, a district of Picardy, is situated in a delightful plain on the Somme; and, though originally no more than a farm or manor belonging to the abbey of St. Requier, by degrees became a borough, and is now well fortified and encompassed with walls. The houses, indeed, are in general but inelegant structures of wood; but, in point of population, it is only inferior to Amiens.

The collegiate church of St. Ulfranc is a lofty stone building, but not very highly adorned: the churches and convents are numerous; and the situation of Abbeville with respect to commerce renders its inhabitants flourishing in their circumstances. The woollen manufacture, established by Mr. Roberts, a Dutchman, in 1665, has succeeded so well, that the cloths of Abbeville are little inferior in value to those of England.

Calais, a sea-port town of vast strength, in 51 degrees 2 minutes north latitude, and in 3 degrees 15 minutes west longitude, stands on a marshy plain, at a part where the British Channel is only seven leagues broad; between which and England, during peace, there is a constant communication by packet-boats, which set out regularly from Dover at stated times.

The figure of the city is an oblong square; and, towards the sea, the fortifications are immensely strong: nor are they less considerable on the land-side, every effort of art being used to render it perfectly secure against every possible contingency. The port, though happily situated, is attended with several material inconveniences, being almost choked up with sand at its entrance, and unprovided with a road for ships to ride at anchor. The canal of Calais, however, is of infinite advantage to the inhabitants for inland navigation; for, by its means, passengers and goods may be conveyed to St. Omer's, Gravelines, Dunkirk, Bruges, and Ypres.

Calais is adorned with many beautiful modern edifices, and straight well-paved streets. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in wine, brandy, salt, flax, horses, and butter; and are exempt from all taxes, except assessments for the repairs of the canal and fortifications; which, however, run very high.

After a memorable siege, the English, under Edward III. got possession of this town in 1347, and retained it till 1558, when it was retaken by the Duke of Guise. In 1596, Albert,

Albert, Archduke of Austria, made himself master of it; but, by virtue of a treaty, it was restored, two years after, to Henry IV. of France. Since that period, the city has been thrice bombarded by the English without effect.

Rheims, the ancient *Durocortorum* and *Civitas Rhemorum*, a city of Champagne, and one of the most celebrated in the whole kingdom, stands eighty-five miles north-east of Paris, and is about four miles in circumference, containing several fine squares, spacious streets, and magnificent public and private edifices. The cathedral of Our Lady is a Gothic structure of beautiful workmanship, and rich almost beyond conception. The great altar, at which the coronation of the kings of France is performed, is plated with pure gold; and the offerings made by every king, on his accession, render the cathedral's treasury very rich.

On the altar of the church belonging to the abbey of Benedictines is kept the Holy Phial, which is pretended to have been brought from Heaven by a dove, at the baptism of Clovis by Bishop Remigius, in 496. This phial is of dark red glass, about three inches long, and furnished with a stopper of gold: the oil contained in it is said to be indurated; but, on every unction of a king of France, a small quantity of it is taken out, and mixed with the oil prepared for that purpose.

This city contains several remains of Roman antiquity; particularly three of its gates, which still bear their original names.

Lyons, (in Latin *Lugdunum*) the capital of Lyonnois, is situated at the confluence of the Soane and the Rhone, and contains about four thousand houses and ninety thousand inhabitants. This city is adorned with several beautiful squares, in one of which stands the Town-house, the most elegant structure of the kind in all France. The cathedral dedicated to St. John is a spacious structure, celebrated for its famous clock, whose various motions appear almost incredible. The chapter is composed of gentlemen of the best families; who boast of having had among their members, in the thirteenth century, a son of an emperor, nine sons of kings, fourteen sons of dukes, thirty of counts, and twenty of barons. Their library contains upwards of forty thousand volumes; among which are some manuscripts of very remote antiquity.

It is impossible to particularize all the stately ecclesiastical edifices and religious institutions in this city, or to describe the various curiosities they contain. The monument of the Two Lovers, which is visited by every stranger, stands on the farther side of the Soane, and seems to have been a Roman work constructed of very large stones. Indeed, many remains of ancient architecture are still to be traced in the city and its vicinity, such as baths, aqueducts, and part of an amphitheatre.

The principal trade of Lyons consists in the manufacture of gold, silver, and silk; but of eighteen thousand looms, which were formerly employed here, scarcely a fourth of that number now remains.

Toulouse, or Thoulouse, one of the most ancient cities in the kingdom, and the capital of Languedoc, is situated in 43 degrees 35 minutes north latitude, and in 1 degree 10 minutes east longitude, in a most delightful plain on the Garonne; and, next to Paris, is the most extensive city in all France. The streets are spacious, and the private houses in

general are built of brick: however, it is by no means populous in proportion to it's extent; and, though blessed with every local advantage for an extensive trade, carries on no considerable commerce.

The cathedral of Thoulouse is an ancient and elegant structure, but contains few curiosities. The other religious edifices are large and beautiful; and under the choir of the Franciscan church is a vault, where bodies are said to dry without mouldering or putrefaction.

The university of Thoulouse is reputed the second in France, consisting of several colleges, in which the four faculties, with the liberal arts, are carefully taught. Besides these, this city is honoured with an academy for polite literature, of royal foundation; and another for the sciences and liberal arts.

Montpellier (in Latin *Mons Peffalanus*) stands at the foot of a hill by the River Lez; and, on account of it's delightful situation and salubrious air, is much resorted to by foreigners of a hectic constitution. This city contains many beautiful fabrics, but the streets are very narrow; which, however, is attended with this convenience, that during hot weather they have a linen awning drawn over them, under which a person may walk without being incommoded by the sun. The churches of St. Peter and the Virgin Mary are much admired; and in the square of Louis the Great is the pleasant walk of Peyron, in which stands an equestrian statue of that monarch in bronze, erected by the States of Languedoc.

The university is particularly famous for physic, having been founded in 1180 by physicians who were expelled from Spain. The famous scarlet gown of Rabelais, with which all the doctors of physic are invested at taking their degrees, has long ceased to be an original, that now used being a fourth or fifth substitute.

The inhabitants are principally employed in making verdigris, dimities, silks, and woollen stuffs; they likewise carry on a considerable trade in wool, wine, brandy, and Hungary and cinnamon-waters:

Nîmes (in Latin *Nemausus*) enjoys a most delightful situation, having beautiful hills covered with vines on one side, and a very fertile plain on the other. It is, however, more celebrated for the illustrious monuments of antiquity in it's vicinity than for it's modern structures; one of which, an amphitheatre the most entire of any similar erection of equal antiquity, is a most amazing fabric. It is built of free-stones, (some of them of amazing length and thickness) two stories high; and has sixty arches and columns in each story, on which, and the cornices, the Roman Eagles, and the figures of Romulus and Remus sucking a Wolf, are still visible.

The other most remarkable antiquities are an oblong structure embellished with thirty-two Corinthian columns, supposed to be the remains of a temple erected by the Emperor Adrian in honour of Plotina the consort of Trajan; and another temple of the most beautiful species of free-stone, half entire, supposed to have been dedicated to Diana; and near it is the very fountain of Diana mentioned by Aufonius, which first discharging itself into a deep and wide pond, furnishes water sufficient for all the gardens of the city. Besides these, at a small distance from the city, are stupendous remains of a Roman aqueduct, which conveyed water into Nîmes from a spring almost nine miles distant.

Bordeaux,

Bordeaux, the capital of Guienne, a large and populous town, is situated on the Garonne, in 44 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and in 40 minutes west longitude, about two hundred and sixty miles south-west of Paris. The most modern and elegant part of this city is the Royal Square, near the harbour, adorned with an exchange, a grand magazine, and a brazen statue of Louis XIV.

Bordeaux, being a place of considerable traffic, is much resorted to by merchants from every European nation; it's haven is very capacious and safe, and admits ships of the largest burden. The palace, the town-house, beautiful market-places, public fountains, the quay, and the cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, demand the attention of every traveller. This city is an archiepiscopal see, the seat of a parliament, a provincial tribunal, and an admiralty and treasurer's office. The inhabitants carry on a very extensive trade; to promote which, a kind of toleration in religious matters is granted to persons of almost every persuasion, though no public act has ever passed in their favour. The Scotch nation in particular, on account of the services formerly rendered by them to the French, are complimented with many immunities; and in this city Edward the Black Prince resided several years, during which time his son Richard II. of England was born.

Poitiers, or Poitiers, the capital of Poitove, is situated on a hill about eighteen leagues from the sea-coast: and, were we to regard it's circuit, independent of it's population, we should not hesitate to pronounce it the second city in France; but it is far from being well inhabited, many meadows and corn-fields being included within the ancient walls. It is still, however, an episcopal see, and contains many beautiful fabrics, particularly the cathedral, a Gothic structure of uncommon magnitude.

Several remains of Roman architecture are still discernible; among which an amphitheatre and a triumphal arch. In the vicinity of this city Edward the Black Prince gained the ever-memorable victory of Poitiers in 1356, in which John King of France, and his son Philip, were taken prisoners.

Rochelle, the capital of a province, a city of great importance and trade, and furnished with an excellent harbour, stands in 46 degrees 16 minutes north latitude, and 1 degree 10 minutes west longitude. The streets are broad and straight; and the houses neat and commodious, supported by piazzas and porticos, which afford an agreeable shelter from the sun and the rain. Being the seat of the Reformed in France, and the inhabitants embracing Calvinism, it suffered extremely during the civil wars, having been defended with great bravery by the Protestants: however, after a long and famous siege, it fell into the hands of Louis XIII. chiefly owing to the promised supplies from England having been retarded by the Duke of Buckingham, the unfortunate favourite of James I.

The principal employment of the inhabitants of Rochelle is the refining of sugar and fabricating earthen-ware. A very advantageous foreign trade is also carried on with several European nations, but particularly with the West Indies; and, since the fatal misunderstanding between Great Britain and her American colonies, a new branch of commerce has been cultivated by the Rochellians, which cannot fail to augment their opulence and consequence.

Orleans, the ancient *Genabum*, and afterwards *Aurelianum*, the capital of a government,

ment, is seated on the Loire, over which is a beautiful stone-bridge adorned with statues; and, among others, that of the famous Maid of Orleans, whose bravery and tragical end are sufficiently known. In honour of her memory, a solemn procession is annually observed on the 12th of May, the day on which the siege was raised by her enthusiastic intrepidity.

Orleans enjoys a delightful situation, in a lovely plain; is about four miles in circumference, but neither very populous, rich, nor elegant. It is, however, an episcopal see, and contains several courts. The cathedral, collegiate and parochial churches, and other public edifices, are splendid, when compared with the general meanness of the private dwellings.

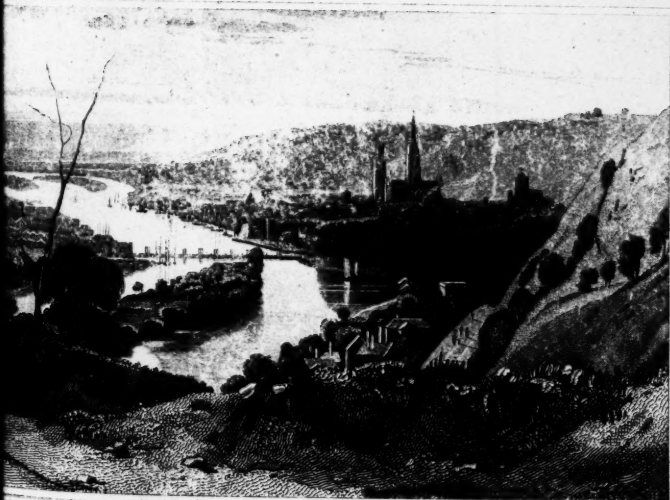
This city, by means of its situation on the Loire, is a magazine of national trade, especially of corn, wine, brandy, and spices. The English besieged it in 1428, and had reduced it to the last extremity, when Joan of Arc, or the Maid of Orleans, compelled them to retire.

St. Malo, a small, but populous city, stands on a little rocky island in the English Channel, united to the continent by a long mole about thirty fathoms broad, and defended by a strong castle flanked with towers. The harbour is spacious, but of difficult entrance, and incapable of admitting large vessels. The fortifications on all sides, aided by the natural situation of the place, render it almost impregnable, and the English have twice attempted to possess themselves of it in vain; for though the troops under the command of the late Duke of Marlborough effected a landing in 1758, and were supported by a powerful squadron under Commodore (now Lord Viscount) Howe, they found the reduction of the town impracticable, and retired, after burning the shipping in the harbour.

Brest, a famous sea-port, and the key of France on that quarter, is situated on the north side of a large and commodious harbour, which opens to the Western Ocean, in 48 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 30 minutes west longitude. This city is principally remarkable for its fortifications, its harbour and road. The latter is extremely capacious, and might contain five hundred ships of the line, but the entrance is somewhat difficult; however, it forms a most secure retreat for the royal navy of France on the western coast, and is the grand magazine of the admiralty. The quantity of naval stores and necessary provisions laid up here is really astonishing, being seldom less than would suffice to equip seventy sail of the line.

In 1694 the English made an unfortunate attempt on this city, in which the general who commanded the expedition received a mortal wound, and the forces were obliged to retire with great loss.

Rouen, the capital of Normandy, stands on the north bank of the Seine, in 49 degrees 36 minutes north latitude, and in 1 degree 36 minutes east longitude. The tide flowing up the Seine as far as this city, conveys ships of about two hundred tons burden up to the quay, so that Rouen is justly considered as the centre of the northern trade of France. The fortifications are ancient and incomplete; and though a particular governor is always appointed for this place, he has no garrison nor military jurisdiction. Rouen is extremely populous, but inelegant, but the private edifices in general being constructed of wood and plaster;



ROVER.

Engraved on the 1st of July 1841.

plaster; however, it is an archiepiscopal see, the seat of several courts, and contains many stately public structures, among which the Cathedral claims deserved pre-eminence. This noble pile is highly adorned; and in it repose the bones of several kings, lords, and prelates, who have stately monuments erected to their memory.

The trade of this city is very extensive, consisting of woollen and linen-cloths, leather, hats, paper, and various other merchandize. The woollen manufactures in particular employ a vast number of hands, and are peculiarly beneficial.

Rouen has undergone a variety of revolutions and vicissitudes of fortune, having been almost reduced to ashes about thirteen or fourteen times. The Normans first possessed themselves of it in 841; the English took it in 1418; it was surrendered to Charles VII. of France in 1449; stormed and taken by the French Protestants, retaken and plundered, in 1562, under Charles IX. and afterwards by Henry IV. in 1592. In this city died William the Conqueror, the first King of England of the Normannic line.

Dieppe, Cherbourg, Havre de Grace, and Harfleur, are celebrated ports of Normandy; but contain little which would render a particular description of them interesting.

France, the Transalpine Gaul of the Romans, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous; and, like other European countries, fell a prey to the ambition of Rome, after a noble resistance, about forty-eight years before the Christian æra. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the dismemberment of their empire in the fifth century, when it was cruelly harrassed by the Goths, Burgundians, and Franks, who subdued the ancient natives, but did not entirely extirpate them. The Franks, a collection of several German tribes, and particularly the Salii, who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence with superior reputation, gave it the name of France, or Frankenland. By a Salic institution, which the rest of the Franks appear to have adopted, and modern ages have confirmed, females are excluded from the inheritance of sovereignty, which is well known by the title of the Salic law. These usurpers having established their power, and reduced the Aborigines to a state of servitude, parcelled out their lands among their principal leaders, who exercising absolute authority in their respective governments, at length assumed an independency unpropitious to kingly power. This gave rise to the numerous principalities and parliaments which were formerly established in France, and may account for several discriminations in manners and policy to be traced in different parts of this monarchy.

Passing over the ages of fabulous narrative, we come to Clovis, the first Christian King of France, who began his reign in 468; from which period the French history becomes pretty well authenticated, and exhibits a number of invasions, broils, and wars; but no material revolution happened to alter the form of government. Charlemagne, King of France, the glory of his age, began his reign in 800; and becoming master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, was crowned King of the Romans by the Pope. By his will he divided his empire among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity; and the Normans, a fierce and warlike people of Scandinavia, ravaging the kingdom of France about the year 900, obliged the French to resign Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who espoused the king's daughter, and professed himself a Christian. This laid the foundation

foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards giving a king to England, proved ruinous and unfortunate to France, as it engaged that nation in almost perpetual wars with England, for which they were not a match.

The rage for crusading breaking out about this time, the different powers of Europe became more attentive to the progress of the Infidels than the extension of their own power. A superstitious zeal induced them to transport themselves and troops to the Holy Land, where they gained battles without victory, and sacrificed their subjects on the altar of pious phrenzy.

Omitting, therefore, a period of history unimportant to Europe, we come to the reign of Francis I. cotemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though possessed of great personal bravery and intrepidity, was unfortunate in his wars. He stood candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost his election; and giving up the reins of government to his mother, while he was performing the most brilliant exploits in Spain, she abused his power, and incurred the resentment of the constable of Bourbon, the most powerful subject of France, who entered into a confederacy against his sovereign, with the Emperor and the King of England. Francis then undertook a capital expedition against Italy; but being taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, to obtain his liberty, he consented to the most dishonourable terms; but his refusal to fulfil them gave rise to many wars between him and the Emperor.

France, at the time of his demise, which happened in 1547, notwithstanding the variety of unfortunate events which had chequered his reign, was in a flourishing condition; and the crown devolving on his son Henry II. an excellent and spirited prince, France assumed a new weight in the scale of political consequence. He continued the war against the Emperor with great success; and though he lost the battle of St. Quintin against the English and Spaniards, he retook Calais from the former. He married his son to Mary Queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that country to France; but in this scheme he was unfortunate, and at last lost his life in an unhappy tilting match with the Count of Montgomery. His son Francis II. a weak and inactive prince, succeeded him in 1559, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the House of Guise, uncle to his wife the beautiful Queen of Scotland. This imbecillity encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government; when the sudden death of Francis happened in 1560. The sole administration of affairs, upon this, fell into the hands of the Queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, during the minority of her son Charles IX. whose regency was one continued series of fraud, treachery, and murder. The Duke of Guise, the scourge of the Protestants, was murdered by a common assassin, who had been instigated, as was supposed, by the celebrated Coligni, admiral of France, then at the head of the Protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded each other; at last an advantageous peace was granted to the Protestants, and a match was concluded between Henry King of Navarre, a Protestant, and the French King's sister. The heads of the Protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all in one night; a project which was too successfully accomplished on St. Bartholomew's Day 1572, when about 30,000 Protestants fell at Paris,

Paris, and other parts of France. This inhuman massacre kindled a fourth civil war; a peace was again concluded, and again violated, when the bloody and perfidious Charles IX. died without issue. His brother, who had been elected King of Poland, hearing of his death, abdicated his throne, and escaping into France, quietly assumed the reins of government under the name of Henry III. At this time France was torn to pieces by religious broils; and parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A Catholic confederacy was formed, called the Holy League, at the head of which was the Duke of Guise; while the Protestants, headed by the Prince of Condé, and the Duke of Alençon the king's brother, called in the German princes to their assistance, and a sixth civil war broke out, which was concluded within the year by another sham peace. The king having plunged himself into a course of debauchery and bigotry, was entirely governed by his infamous favourites; but having good natural sense, he began to suspect that the Catholics, in being so inveterately bent against the Protestants, intended to place their idol, the Duke of Guise, on the throne, in violation of the regular succession. A seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in 1585, both disadvantageous to the Protestants, through the abilities of the Duke of Guise, whom the king now regarded with such a suspicious eye, that, after inviting him to an entertainment, both he and his brother the Cardinal were basely assassinated by the royal mandate. The leaguers upon this declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, which obliged him to implore the protection of the Protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, and in him ended the line of Valois.

Henry III. being thus dispatched, Henry King of Navarre, the head of the Protestant party, and heir to the crown of France by the Salic Law, encountered a thousand difficulties before he could mount the throne. The leaguers, headed by the Duke of Maine, drew from his cell the decrepit Cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the King of Navarre, to proclaim him King of France. Henry, upon this, privately came to a resolution of embracing the Roman Catholic religion, as the only means by which he could overcome the difficulties which lay in his way: he then publicly attended mass, as a mark of his conversion; and having obtained absolution from the Pope, all France submitted to his authority without farther opposition. In 1598, he published the famous Edict of Nantz, which secured to the Protestants the free exercise of their religion; and having composed civil and foreign wars, he applied himself with wonderful attention and success to cultivate the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures and commerce. But Henry, accustomed to enterprize, could not relish a life of inactivity: he entered into connections with the neighbouring princes for the reduction of the Austrian grandeur; and having collected a numerous army, and given orders for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, previous to his setting out on the concerted expedition, he was assassinated in his coach, in the streets of Paris, by Ravilliac, a young enthusiast, in 1610.

At Henry's death, deservedly surnamed The Great, his son Louis XIII. was only nine years of age; who, as soon as he grew up, discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous Cardinal Richelieu, a man who, by his sanguinary and resolute

resolute measures, put a period to the remaining liberties of France, and the Protestant toleration. Richelieu, though an enthusiast for popery, by a masterly train of politics, supported the Protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, against the House of Austria; and after quelling every rebellion and conspiracy which had been formed against him in France, died a few months before his royal master, in 1643, who left his son Louis XIV. a minor, his successor.

Anne of Austria, the queen-mother, acted as regent during this prince's nonage, while the kingdom was torn in pieces by party views and distractions; but the famous Mazarine being raised to the rank of prime-minister, he found means to divert the impending danger; and when Louis thought proper to assume the reins of government, he found himself the most absolute monarch that ever sat on the throne of France.

To write the history of his reign would exceed the bounds of this work. We shall only observe, that ambition was the darling passion of Louis XIV. and though he was fortunate in having such a minister as Colbert, who possessed a soul calculated for great enterprises, his reign was splendidly miserable; and his victories, great as they were, bore no proportion to the price they cost him. The latter part of his reign was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he was reduced at last to adopt the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head. The peace of Utrecht, however, concluded in 1713, saved him from despair; but he did not long survive this important event, dying in 1715, when his great grandson Louis XV. mounted the throne.

One of the first acts of this king's government was that of nominating his preceptor, afterwards Cardinal Fleury, his prime-minister; who, though strongly disposed to peace, from the situation of European affairs, could not avoid embroiling his master with the House of Austria. The French king, on the death of his Polish majesty, attempted to replace his father-in-law Stanislaus on the throne of Poland; but in this he failed; through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians. A family compact subsisting between France and Spain, these powers united in a war against Great Britain, which terminated, in 1748, with the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, without any material advantages or concessions on either side. Louis XV. found himself involved in a second war with Great Britain, which was carried on for some time with such amazing success in favour of the English, that France began to tremble to her centre. A peace, however, concluded at Fontenoy in 1763, gave the French time to recover their losses, and to meditate revenge.

Louis XV. was succeeded by his grandson Louis XVI. his present majesty, in 1774. His reign has already been marked with several regulations favourable to the national interests, particularly in suppressing the Musketaires and some other corps, adapted rather for a display of royal parade than any real military service; and who, however, were supported at an immense expence to the state. But one of the most remarkable circumstances attending the present reign, was elevating Mr. Neckar, a Protestant, and a native of Switzerland, to the head of French finance. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, throughout every department of the revenue; a variety of unnecessary offices in the royal household were abolished; and sundry important regulations were adopted for the ease of the subject and the honour of government. But the measures



A
NEW MAP
of
SPAIN and PORTUGAL,
BY
J. Bayly, Geographer.

British Statute Miles, 69 1/2 to a Degree.

measures of this true statesman were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the interested, the vain, and the ambitious, became his natural enemies; and the king, assailed by powerful parties, had not sufficient fortitude to maintain a minister in his place whose actions have been the greatest glory of his reign.

On the breaking out of the unhappy dissensions between England and her American colonies, the most shallow politician could foresee, that our natural enemies the French would not remain idle spectators: At first, indeed, till the colonists had in some measure secured the object of their contention, the French only granted them secret assistance; but no sooner had the Americans justified their rebellion by success, than France avowed herself their ally, which gave rise to an extensive and ruinous war on the part of Great Britain. The humiliating terms which France dictated to this country at the late pacification are well known, and perhaps will long be felt. France, it is certain, was never so powerful by sea in any former age; nor did her officers and seamen ever behave with such conduct and intrepidity: and, to the admiration of all Europe, though her navy has been raised to such a height as to become formidable to Britain herself, the nation has neither been burdened with new taxes, nor loaded with many additional imposts.

C H A P. XI.

S P A I N.

THE kingdom of Spain, including Portugal, was anciently known by the names of Iberia, Hesperia, and Hispania; the etymological derivation of which we are at a loss to account for with authenticity; fancy, rather than reason, seeming often to have given names to the different countries of the world. The Spaniards themselves call it Espana; the French, Espagne; and the English, by contraction, Spain.

Spain, with it's ancient appendage Portugal, is the most western part of the continent of Europe; and forms a large peninsula, encompassed on every side by sea, except towards France, from which it is divided by a continuous chain of mountains called the Pyrenees; being bounded on the south and east by the Mediterranean Sea, the Straits of Gibraltar, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by the Atlantic and Portugal; and on the north by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean mountains; extending from 36 to 45 degrees of north latitude, and from 10 degrees west to 3 degrees east longitude from London.

The air of Spain is dry, and the sky serene and clear, except during the equinoctial rains; but in the southern provinces, during the summer months, the heat is almost intolerable. The vast mountains, however, which intersect this country, essentially contribute to the comfort of the inhabitants, by affording them cool breezes in summer, and an agreeable shelter in winter.

No country on earth is blessed with a happier soil; but the natives, indolent to excess, suffer it to become sterile for want of cultivation, and scarcely raise corn sufficient for the necessary calls of life. In many places the richest and most delicious fruits grow almost spon-

taneously; particularly, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins, and figs. The Spanish wines are in high estimation among foreigners, and even sugar-canes arrive at the utmost perfection. Saffron, honey, and silk, are produced in great abundance in almost every province; and though large tracts of unpromising and uncultivated land frequently meet the eye of the traveller, such is the surprizing benignity of the soil, that the numerous inhabitants are well enabled to subsist on its produce, with little or no attention to the labours of cultivation.

Ustariz, a modern Spanish writer, computes the number of shepherds at 40,000; a lazy race of men, whose employment seems perfectly adapted to their native disposition. At stated seasons they change their pastures, and observe a particular oeconomy in their manner of life, which is well described by Ustariz. The Spanish sheep are a treasure in themselves, their wool being the finest in the universe.

Some of the mountains in this country are clothed with wood, fruits, and herbage, to their very summits. A variety of aromatic herbs grow every where, imparting a delightful flavour to the sheep and kids which feed on them. Seville is famous over all the world for its oranges; and Murcia produces mulberry-trees in such abundance, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000*l.* a year. This country, however, is much infested with locusts, which sometimes darken the meridian sun, consume the verdure of the fields, and ruin the hope of the year; and, from this dreadful calamity, whole provinces have felt all the horrors of famine. It must, however, be confessed, that the inhabitants are unpardonably inattentive to the destruction of the eggs of these formidable insects, which might timely prevent any such fatal consequences.

The medicinal waters of Spain are little known; and, indeed, the interior parts of this country are less explored by travellers than those of any other in Europe. Salutiferous springs, which possess many healing qualities, are frequent in Granada, Seville, and Cordova; but the fashion of resorting to them is yet in its infancy.

The numerous mountains in this kingdom rendering it impossible to particularize them all, we shall only mention the most remarkable. The highest and most extensive are the Pyrenees, near two hundred miles long, over which there are only five narrow passages to France; the Cantabrian mountains appear to be a continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach the Atlantic Ocean south of Cape Finisterre; and Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and anciently one of the pillars of Hercules, is sufficiently known. But, of all others, Montserrat is most deserving of a geographer's attention: this mountain, which stands in a vast plain about thirty miles from Barcelona, in the principality of Catalonia, is so broken and divided, and so crowned with an infinite number of spiring cones, that it seems, on a distant view, to be merely the work of art; though, on a nearer approach, it appears manifestly the production of nature. At a distance the mountain appears like an infinite number of rocks cut into a conical form, and piled upon one another to a prodigious height: on a nearer view, each cone composes a mountain of itself; and the whole occupies an extent of about fourteen miles in circumference, the height being computed by the Spaniards at two leagues. As it is dissimilar to any other mountain, so it is unconnected with any; and, from its situation, is so admirably adapted for contemplation and retirement, that

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for many ages it has been the habitation of monks and hermits, who vow never to forsake it. On this mountain stands a convent dedicated to Our Lady of Montserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the most distant Catholic countries. The poor who call there are fed three days gratis, and the sick relieved from the hospital. On particular festivals several thousand persons arrive in a day, who pay according to their circumstances for what accommodations the convent can afford. A number of hermitages are cut out of different parts of the mountain; all of which have their little chapels, and are in general furnished with small gardens. Their respective inhabitants live in a very reclusive and solitary manner, perform various penances, and adhere to the most rigid rules of abstinence: they have an annual meeting at a particular hermitage, dedicated to St. Benito, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar, and afterwards dine together; but at other times they practise the utmost austerity, and are prohibited from keeping any living creature within their walls, that their attention may not be diverted from Divine contemplations by the exercise of any earthly affection.

The principal rivers in Spain are the Duero, formerly the Durus, which falls into the Atlantic below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo, or Tagus, which likewise enters the Atlantic near Lisbon; the Guadiana, which falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; the Guadalquivir, now the Turio, which joins the ocean at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, which falls into the Mediterranean Sea near Tortosa. The Tinto, however, which rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean at Huelva, is the most remarkable. Its waters are of a topaz hue; and, as they glide along, they indurate the sand, and petrify in a surprising manner. Not a plant grows on its banks, no kind of verdure is seen within its reach, nor have any fish ever been found in its stream. Every species of animals, except goats, refuse to drink of it, though its water does not appear to contain any noxious quality, and is much celebrated for destroying worms in cattle. These singular properties, however, are entirely lost before it reaches the sea, by the influx of various rivulets, a considerable distance from its mouth.

The lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with various excellent species of fish; and the water of a lake near Antiquera, upon being exposed to the sun, is formed into salt.

The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna, Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Cartagena, Alicante, Altea, Valencia, and Roses. The only strait is that of Gibraltar, which divides Europe from Africa.

Spain abounds in metals and minerals; but its ancient celebrity for gold and silver-mines is now no more: whether their veins were exhausted, or the natives too indolent to work them, is altogether uncertain. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world: their gun-barrels and swords are still highly valued, though not so much as formerly, when they brought in a vast revenue to the crown. Carnelian, agate, loadstones, jacinths, turquoise-stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, allum, calamine, crystal, marble, and other stones, are not unfrequently found in this country; and even sometimes diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts.

Wolves are almost the only beasts of prey in this kingdom; the breed of which, on account

count of the number of mountains, can never be entirely exterminated. The Andalusian horses are the most celebrated of any in Europe, and esteemed the fleetest and most serviceable. Black-cattle, sheep and mules, and other tame animals common to the European climates, are plentiful in Spain; and their wild bulls have so much ferocity, that the court could not formerly exhibit a more magnificent spectacle than a bull-feast; a custom which, though justly becoming obsolete, is not entirely disused. Fowls, wild and tame, with every species of game, are excellent and numerous; nor are the Spanish seas and rivers destitute of their full proportion of fish.

The indolence of the natives, the emigrations to America, and the vast number of ecclesiastics of both sexes who lead a life of celibacy, have conspired to depopulate this country, which was anciently the best-peopled of any in Europe. Feyjoo, a celebrated Spaniard, computes the inhabitants at 9,250,000, a number by no means considerable in proportion to the vast extent of country.

The Spaniards are in general tall and well made, their complexions swarthy, and their countenances animated and expressive. Since the accession of the House of Bourbon, the court has endeavoured as much as possible to introduce the French fashions into this country, and among the higher ranks the alteration is become very conspicuous; but the lower classes are still remarkably attached to their original modes of dress, viz. their mustachoes, black cloaks, short jerkins, and long Toledo swords.

A Spanish grandee considers himself as the most important being in nature, and takes care to instil into his posterity his hereditary pride. This passion, which is perceptible even in the traders, though highly ridiculous, is productive of many good qualities; inspiring them with noble and virtuous sentiments, teaching them to despise the little meannesses of mercenary and vulgar minds, and to set a due value upon their reputation. Indeed, Spanish faith is almost become proverbial; for, during their most inveterate wars with England, they have never taken advantage of confiscating British property on board their galleons and Plate fleet; in which the example of other nations might in some measure have justified them.

But while we pay this just compliment to the Spanish nobility, gentry, and merchants, in general, it must be acknowledged that instances of rapacity and meanness are frequently met with in Spain, as well as in other countries. The common people, in particular, who inhabit the coasts, partake of every bad quality common to other nations: they are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish, and English smugglers, who have a turn for adventure; many of whom, in time of war, follow privateering with success, and on the establishment of peace return to their former illicit practices. Gypsies are extremely numerous; and, besides being famous for chiromancy, and the other tricks of their tribe, many of them are innkeepers, a profession which most true-born Spaniards despise. Were we to credit the Spanish novels and romances, we should be induced to conclude that this was the native land of female beauty; but, though many fine women are unquestionably to be met with, beauty is far from forming the general characteristic of that sex: in their persons they are commonly small and slender, and their complexions are very brown; but every device of art is called in to remedy the defects of nature. They use paint indiscriminately; not only on their faces, but on their necks, arms,



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arms, and hands; which, by shrivelling their skin, gives them early the appearance of old age: however, they are extremely witty, lively, and sentimental, and very amorous in their dispositions.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their temperance is not the least praise-worthy. Their breakfast is generally chocolate, tea being little used; which, as well as their supper, is frequently taken in bed. Their dinner usually consists of beef, mutton, veal, pork, or bacon and greens boiled together. Salad, radishes, chives, and garlic, are also much esteemed. Wine is drank in great moderation by the men; but the common beverage of the women is water or chocolate. As in other warm climates, it is usual to repose after dinner, and to devote the cool of the evenings to walking and exercise. Dancing is the favourite entertainment of every age and sex; and it is not uncommon to behold a grandmother, mother, and daughter, in the same dance; one of the most captivating of which, called the Fandango, requires a particular briskness and activity. Their theatrical exhibitions are in general insipid and ridiculous bombast, equally destitute of plan, moral, humour, and sentiment; the prompter's head appears through a trap-door above the level of the stage, and his voice, in reading, is audible by the whole house: in short, on such a low footing is the management of the stage, that it might be supposed they were in the infancy of refinement.

Jealousy, the leading characteristic of the Spaniards, seems to have declined since the elevation of the Bourbon line; gallantry, however, is still a ruling passion, and nightly musical serenades to mistresses by their admirers are still common. But, of all their peculiarities, the fights of the cavaliers, or bull-fights, are most remarkable, and form a capital feature in delineating the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen seek to display their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured and rewarded, in proportion to the ferocity and number of the bulls he has been resolute enough to attack. Before the combat commences, a number of precautions are used in order to relieve the gallant cavalier, should he be pressed too much. This diversion, attended with circumstances of uncommon barbarity, and suited only to the Gothic ages, is unquestionably of Moorish original, and was probably adopted by the Spaniards, when that people resided among them, partly out of complaisance, and partly out of rivalry. Indeed, so prevalent is this custom, that every town of any note is furnished with a large square for the purpose of exhibiting bull-fights; and so fond are the vulgar of this diversion, that in the smallest villages they will procure a cow or ox by subscription, and fight them riding on asses, if they cannot procure horses.

The Roman Catholic religion, the only one tolerated in this country, reigned in all its horrors till a late edict for moderating the penalties of the Inquisition; a tribunal disgraceful to human nature, and highly dishonourable to Christianity, which is founded on mercy and love. But though the power of this tribunal is restrained, its authority is not abrogated; and it is still enforced against the Moorish and Jewish pretended converts, only the ecclesiastics and their officers can carry no sentence into execution without the royal mandate. In the profession of papacy, this nation has been so uniformly steady, that their king is distinguished by the title of Most Catholic. Indeed, so entirely are the people de-

voted to their priests, and such an ascendancy have they gained over them in temporal as well as spiritual affairs, that government begin to regard them in a dangerous light, and by degrees have considerably reduced their power. But nothing can be more beneficial to the common interests of society than a royal edict which has been lately issued for preventing the admission of noviciates into the different convents without special permission, which has a strong tendency to discourage a monastic life. The secular clergy are computed at 20,000, the friars at 54,000, and the nuns at 34,000; who are all amply provided for, either by endowments or the weakness of their devotees.

Spain contains eight archbishoprics, and forty-six bishoprics. The Archbishop of Toledo, the Primate of all Spain, and Chancellor of Castile, has a revenue equivalent to 100,000*l.* a year. The Spanish churches are the unvarying objects of admiration both to the natives and foreigners; the quantity of treasure and jewels they contain, which exceeds all description, displays, in the strongest characters, extravagant zeal and superstitious credulity.

The Spanish language, except in the terminations and some exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, bears a strong affinity to the Latin, and is one of the most majestic and expressive tongues in Europe. It is universally admired by those who perfectly understand it; and the most spirited translations are incapable of doing justice to its beauties: even Cervantes, in English, makes a very awkward appearance, compared with his original graces. This language has retained its purity for upwards of two hundred years, and may be considered as a standard tongue. It has been justly remarked, that the Spanish pomp is infused into their very language, and that it is excellently adapted for grand and lofty expression.

There are twenty-four universities in Spain; the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonfus King of Leon in the year 1200, containing twenty-one colleges, some of them magnificently beautiful, where the sons of the principal nobility are sent for their education. The other universities, which contain nothing very remarkable, are as follow: Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huéscá, Saragossa, Tortosa, Ossuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Palencia, and Oviedo.

The natives of Spain, though blessed with an excellent understanding, in general have made no great figure in literature. Indolence and bigotry, added to the despotism of government, impede the progress of the polite arts, and enfeeble the elevation of genius. Several of the old fathers were Spaniards; and the same country has also produced some eminent physicians. But how can any man pant for the olive-crown in a country that could suffer such a genius as Cervantes to languish in obscurity, and almost to pine away with want! That inimitable and original author, who may be justly placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists, enlisted in a station little superior to that of a common soldier; and, having lost an arm in the battle of Lepanto, died neglected and unlamented. His satire upon Knight-errantry, in the Adventures of Don Quixote, did formerly as much service to his country in curing them of their ridiculous attachment to romance and chivalry, as it now reflects honour on his own memory.

The Spaniards, at a very early period, cultivated the study of the Muses; and, after the Saracens

racens had settled in this kingdom, they introduced into it their language, religion, and literature, and the Eastern stile of composition was generally adopted. At that time the attachment to Oriental literature was so great, that it entirely superseded the Roman; and many natives of Spain could write Arabic with the utmost purity, though there was scarcely a man who understood Latin. The Spanish Jews, about that period, were distinguished for their literary abilities; and, under the sanction of government, they established schools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo, where they taught the Hebrew tongue, and other branches of learning, with singular success and approbation.

It would be unpardonable not to mention the Trobadours, whom the Spanish writers place as high as the twelfth and thirteenth century, when the Provençal and Galician dialects were generally prevalent. The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries produced several learned men and celebrated poets; particularly, the Marquis of Villena, Juan de Mena, Juan de la Encina, Boscan, Ercilla, and Villegas. But the most distinguished genius, in dramatic poetry at least, that Spain ever produced, was Lopez de Vega, the contemporary of Cervantes and our immortal Shakespeare. Lopez possessed an imagination surprizingly fertile and inventive; but he disregarded those rules to which the critics have given the name of Unities, and formed his works more to the taste of the age than in conformity to the pure models of antiquity.

Toftatus was famous as a voluminous writer on divinity; and Herrera and De Solis as historians. Modern times have produced Father Feyjoo, whose works not only display ingenuity and extensive knowledge, but an uncommon liberality of sentiment.

The Spaniards have gained considerable reputation in the polite arts, especially in painting; but so little intercourse has subsisted between this kingdom and the rest of Europe, that the names of many capital artists are absolutely unknown. Spain certainly contains a great number of capital paintings; but, being dispersed in churches, convents, and palaces, they are in a manner removed from public inspection. Palomino, in an elaborate work on the art of painting, recapitulates the lives of more than two hundred painters and sculptors, who flourished in this country between the reign of Ferdinand the Catholic and the death of Philip IV. Among the most eminent are Velasquez, Murillo, Rebeira, and Claudio Coello.

From the Gothic times, through a long succession of kings, Spain was one of the freest governments in Europe; but it is now justly deemed the most despotic: the fatal consequences of which are perceptible in a high degree, particularly in the general poverty of the inhabitants, and the uncultivated state of the country. Anciently, the throne was filled by the suffrages of the states; but at present the crown devolves of course, without any form or ceremony, to the nearest of blood: and should the next heir be incapable of governing, the states are empowered to elect five persons to take upon them the administration of affairs in the royal name.

Yet so despotic is this government, that it has been questioned whether his Catholic Majesty may not bequeath his crown to any branch of the royal family he pleases. Certain it is, that the House of Bourbon ascended the throne in virtue of the last will of Charles II.

On the inauguration of a new monarch, he is proclaimed in the church of the Jeronites-

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at Buen Retiro, and receives the homage of the states; but the ceremony of unction and coronation has been disused for several centuries.

Spain formerly comprehending twelve kingdoms, their names, and those of several other principalities, were annexed to the royal titles; so that they amount in all to thirty-two. This absurd custom is occasionally continued, though the king is now generally satisfied with the appellation of His Most Catholic Majesty. The royal signature is, I THE KING. The heir-presumptive to the throne is styled Prince of Asturias; and the younger children of both sexes are, by way of distinction, called Infants, or Infantas; that is, Children.

The armorial bearings of the Spanish monarchs, in conformity to their title, is loaded with the arms of all the kingdom. That now in use is a Shield divided into four quarters, the uppermost of which on the right-hand, and the lowest on the left, contain a Castle, Or, with Three Towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right, are Three Lions, Gules, for Leon; with Three Lilies in the centre, for Anjou.

The ancient Spanish Cortes resembled our parliament, consisting of the clergy, the ancient nobility, and the deputies of towns; and the legislative authority was so blended in that of the king and states, that no laws could be made, suspended, or abrogated, nor any money raised upon the subjects, without the concurrence of each. This Cortes, however, is now no more; Spain, as we have previously observed, having become an absolute government. This change, from a mixed to an absolute monarchy, was occasioned by the timidity of the Commons of Castile; who having, in their last struggles for expiring freedom, supported for some time a war against the crown, deserted the cause of liberty with a shameful indifference, on experiencing a single defeat.

The Privy-council, which is composed of noblemen, or grandees, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare and digest matters for the Cabinet-council or Junto, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four other persons, in whom the direction of all the executive parts of government is vested. The Council of War is restricted to military affairs only. The Council of Castile is the highest law tribunal in the kingdom, and possesses very extensive jurisdiction. The courts of Royal Audiences are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Barcelona, and Valencia; who determine primarily in all causes incident within fifteen miles of their respective cities and capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these, there are many subordinate tribunals, instituted for police, finance, and other public departments.

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself; and is delegated to viceroys and other magistrates, who exercise almost absolute power in their respective districts. The Council for the Indies consists of a governor, four secretaries, and twenty-two counsellors, exclusive of officers generally chosen from the number of viceroys and magistrates who have served in these countries; and their decision is final in all matters relative to America. The two vice-royalties of Mexico and Peru are so extremely important and extensive, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years.

The kingdom of Spain consists of main-land and islands. The main-land is divided into fourteen provinces, some of which are reckoned to belong to the crown of Castile, and others to Arragon; the former are Old and New Castile, Biscay, Leon, Asturias, Galicia, Estremaduri,

madura, Andalusia, Granada, Murcia, and Navarre; the latter includes only Arragon, Catalonia and Valencia, with the islands in the Mediterranean.

The foreign possessions of the Spanish crown, exclusive of those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Mafulquiver, on the Barbary coast; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrões, in Asia.

The royal revenues in Old Spain are calculated to amount to five millions at least, while those of America are truly immense; but, before they reach the king's exchequer, they are in a great measure embezzled, by passing through so many hands. The king is entitled to a fifth of all the silver mines; but such a number of deductions intervene, that little of it ever arrives in Spain. However, where the usual means of taxation prove inadequate to the public exigency, under an absolute government, it is no difficult matter to raise the sum required: a sequestration of the American treasures of individuals has on such occasions frequently taken place; and as these are always punctually repaid with interest, the parties seldom complain. His present Catholic Majesty has put finance on an excellent footing, having consulted his own interest, and the ease of his subjects, far more than most of his predecessors.

It is impossible to specify all the various objects of internal taxation in such a government as Spain: but though these imposts, which are adapted to the situation of public affairs, are in general very arbitrary, the clergy and military are never exempted from them.

In time of peace, the land forces seldom amount to fewer than 70,000 men; but, on the contingency of a war, they may be increased, without any national prejudice, to 110,000. The king, however, chiefly depends on his Walloon, or foreign guards; and, indeed, since the accession of the Bourbon line, the prime-minister has likewise been usually a foreigner. His present Catholic Majesty has been at immense expence in raising a powerful marine force; and his fleets in Europe and America at present exceed seventy sail of the line, though he lost several at the commencement of the late war.

Along the whole Spanish coasts are watch-towers, about a mile apart, with lights and nocturnal guards; so that the whole kingdom may speedily be alarmed in case of an invasion.

Such immense treasure is derived from Spanish America, that this nation makes gold and silver the chief branches of its imports and exports. The Spaniards import bullion from America, and from thence they export it to the other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium for this species of commerce; where other nations send their merchandize, to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered under the names of Spanish factors. At this place the different European nations have their agents and correspondents; and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz contains the finest storehouses and magazines for commerce of any European city; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the produce of the American mines. The proper Spanish merchandize sent from this city to America is of inconsiderable value; but the duty on the foreign merchandize imported there would yield a valuable revenue, were it not for the many fraudulent practices employed in eluding the legal imposts.

The chief manufactures of Spain are silk, wool, copper, and hard-ware; but notwith-

standing the late efforts of government to prevent other European nations from enjoying the principal advantage of the American commerce, such is the general indolence and inactivity of the natives, that they are totally unable to supply their colonies with commodities of their own manufacture; meanwhile the English, French, Dutch, and several other nations, carry on this contraband trade with great advantage, in the prosecution of which they are encouraged by that probity the Spaniards have ever displayed in commercial engagements. Spanish America, indeed, may be truly said to contain a mine of commerce; but foreigners principally reap the emolument of it, and leave the natives only the honour of possession. Under such circumstances, the general poverty of the lower ranks cannot be much an object of astonishment; for though they affect the most ostentatious display of consequence, their penury is easily perceptible: their wants, however, are few, and their appetites easily gratified. The inferior orders, even in the most superb cities, are wretchedly lodged and accommodated; and many of both sexes are even destitute of shoes and stockings.

In no other European country is travelling so inconvenient as in Spain; a circumstance which renders many parts of it but little known. A Spaniard thinks it beneath his dignity to accommodate a stranger with necessaries on his journey, who is therefore obliged to carry provisions with him; which, though he should meet with an inn, he is nevertheless himself obliged to cook. Irish and French adventurers, however, have experienced the advantages which result from opening houses of entertainment in this country; and accordingly, on the most public roads, and in capital cities, these useful institutions are become pretty numerous. Indeed, the pride, indolence, and inactivity of the Spaniards, are strong inducements to their more industrious neighbours the French, who settle in every part of the kingdom; and, by degrees, will probably bring about a revolution in the genius and manners of the natives. The Spaniard of fortune thinks himself superior to every exertion of body or mind: he sleeps, goes to mass, and takes his evening walk; and thus revolve his days. The industrious Frenchman, on the contrary, officiates as butcher, cook, taylor, friseur, and even shoe-black, in the same family; and, having accumulated a decent competency, returns to his own country, where he laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his late supercilious master.

The Spanish nobility are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles; but the general name for those nobility and gentry who are not of Moorish extraction, is Hidalgo. Those who are grantees by creation have the privilege of standing covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grantee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other dignitaries, both in church and state, enjoy the same honour as the grantees, of standing covered in the royal presence.

The principal order of knighthood is that of the Golden Fleece, which received its origin from the Burgundian dominions, and at present is common both to the kings of Spain and the House of Austria. The collar of this order consists of an alternate range of Golden Flints and Steels, with surrounding scintillations; and a Golden Fleece pendent from it, with this motto, '*Autre n'aurai.*' Charles V. however, permitted the knights, instead of this collar, to wear only a scarlet ribband.

The

The three following orders are properly Spanish, and have revenues respectively annexed to them.

The order of St. Jago di Compostella, instituted in 1175 by Ferdinand II. King of Leon, which has for it's badge a red uniform Cross divided into twelve compartments. This order has four convents, who are brothers of the order; several religious ones; one college; five hospitals; and six hermitages.

The order of Alcantara, the badge of which is a Lily placed crossways, was instituted likewise by Ferdinand II. King of Leon, and at first called St. Julian de Peregro. This order is divided into five departments, and possesses three convents of religious, and one college.

The order of Calatrava, instituted by Sancho III. King of Castile, the badge of which is a red Cross divided into five compartments; and to this order belong one convent of religious, and one college.

Besides these, the present monarch has introduced the Neapolitan order of St. Januarius, and has ordered it to be worn in his court above the French order of the Holy Ghost, or that of the Golden Fleece.

Having considered whatever seemed worthy of notice in the manners, policy, and produce of Spain, we now proceed to a survey of it's principal cities, beginning with the most eastern.

Barcelona, the capital of Catalonia, a large and well fortified sea-port, stands at the foot of Montjoui, in 41 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, and 2 degrees 5 minutes east longitude; opening to the sea in a beautiful semicircular form between the Rivers Llobregat and Besos. Barcelona is esteemed one of the most elegant towns in Spain: the houses, which are in general handsome structures, amount to about fifteen thousand; and the streets are spacious, well paved, and clean. The cathedral, churches, convents, and other public as well as private edifices, are particularly beautiful. At the church of Capelufmona, or the Almshaker, in the vicinity of the cathedral, three hundred poor people are daily maintained. Several courts sit in this city: and it is farther honoured with an university; and an academy of the fine arts, instituted in 1752. The harbour is large, deep, and secure; and the trade of the inhabitants is very considerable. The neighbouring country abounds with corn, wine, oil, a variety of fruits, and plenty of game; which render Barcelona one of the most desirable situations in Spain.

Barcelona has experienced various revolutions, having been formerly subject to it's own counts, but afterwards united to Arragon. The inhabitants revolted in 1640, and put themselves under the protection of the French: which occasioned several captures and recaptures of the city, till it was restored to the Spaniards by the peace of Ryswic. The Emperor Charles VI. then King of Spain, gallantly took it from the French, who had over-run the Spanish dominions, in 1705, after a siege of only three weeks; but the French having invested it the year following with a grand train of artillery and a numerous army, it was relieved by the English under Lord Peterborough and Sir John Leake. After this, the citizens having erected themselves into a kind of commonwealth, set up for an independent state; but in 1714 the Duke of Berwick, the Spanish general, reduced them to the allegiance of Philip V. since which period Barcelona has remained an appendage of the crown of Spain.

Tortosa

Tortosa and Terragona, cities of the same province, are principally remarkable for being the seats of an university. The latter, however, is farther celebrated for its magnificent ruins and ornaments of antiquity. Between Terragona and Barcelona, on the public road, is a beautiful triumphal arch, erected by the family of the Licinii; and, at a small distance from thence, the tomb of the Scipios, as it is called, being an obelisk or pyramid erected to their memory, with a figure on each side in a Roman habit; supposed by some to be the two Scipios, while others are of opinion that these figures only represent two weeping slaves.

Saragossa, the capital of Arragon, stands in a fertile plain on the River Ebro; which, winding through the neighbouring country, fertilizes the soil in a surprizing manner. This city is surrounded by strong antique walls, adorned with stately towers and four magnificent gates; it is said to have been originally built by Juba, King of Mauritania, and afterwards improved by Augustus. The churches, palaces, squares, and market-places, are extremely magnificent; nor are the private buildings deficient in point of beauty and convenience; but the streets, though long and broad, are ill paved and disagreeable.

The collegiate church of Our Lady of the Pillar, so called from a pretended miraculous image of the Virgin, is a beautiful structure. The crown and robes of this figure, which stands on a lofty pillar of the finest jasper, are almost entirely covered with jewels; and in its arms is seen the infant Jesus. The multitude of burning lamps and wax-candles, with the profusion of ornaments on every side, dazzle the eyes of the beholder; and to this image of the Virgin a vast number of pilgrims annually resort, to pay their devotions at her shrine.

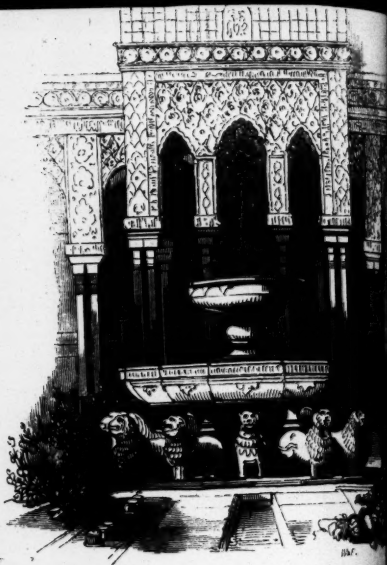
The inhabitants of Saragossa are computed at about fifteen thousand families, among which are several of distinction. The commerce of the city is pretty extensive, and several trades and manufactures are exercised within the walls and in the vicinity.

Valencia, the capital of a province of the same name, though a city of considerable extent, and inhabited by many families of quality, is more remarkable for its antiquity than either its beauty or commerce. It appears to have been originally of Roman erection; but, having been destroyed by Pompey, it was afterwards rebuilt by Cæsar, and called Colonia Julia Valencia. Near this place stood Saguntum, a town famous in history, but of which scarce a vestige now remains.

Alicant, which lies about sixty miles south of Valencia, in 38 degrees 37 minutes north latitude, and about 5 minutes west longitude, is a celebrated city and sea-port in the Mediterranean, delightfully situated between two hills. It is a place of considerable trade; and, on account of its excellent harbour, is much resorted to by the English for fruits and wines. On the neighbouring shore stand several watch-towers, from which the vessels of the Saltee Rovers are observed. The English possessed themselves of this city in 1705, and held it till the peace of Utrecht, when it was returned to the Spaniards, its original owners.

About half a league from this city is a celebrated nunnery, to which numbers of pilgrims resort, in order to pay their devotions to the impression of the Holy Face, said to have been imprinted thrice on a napkin with which Veronica wiped the face of our Saviour as he was going to his crucifixion. Among these votaries of superstition the mariners are most conspicuous; who, on leaving Alicant, vow to perform their devotions at this place, on their safe return. This miraculous representation of our Saviour's face on a piece of white linen,

we



GRANADA.

we are told, is a wretched piece of daubing; and none but the most superstitious devotees could possibly behold it in a serious light.

Carthagera, situated in 37 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 1 degree 5 minutes west longitude, on a fine bay of the Mediterranean, is blessed with one of the best harbours in the kingdom, enjoying a temperate and salubrious air. Though not very extensive, it is populous and commercial: and the adjacent country, which is extremely fertile, is also famous for producing amethysts, garnets, agates, and other gems.

The city of Granada, the capital of that province, stands on the River Xenil, in 37 degrees 28 minutes north latitude, and in 3 degrees 51 minutes west longitude, at the foot of a noble ridge of mountains and rocks, which, stretching round on each side, embrace a lovely plain, variegated with plantations, gardens, and villages. This city is divided into four wards; in the principal of which, called Granada, and which is inhabited by the nobility, gentry, and most opulent citizens, the public and private buildings make a handsome appearance. The Moorish palace, called Al-Hambra, built on a high hill overlooking the city, and the valley, contains many superb apartments, finished in the Moorish stile with alcoves, domes, fountains, Arabic inscriptions, and other similar ornaments. Near this delightful structure lies a beautiful garden belonging to the Moorish kings, planted with a vast variety of trees, and adorned with several jette d'eaus and fountains.

Ferdinand the Catholic possessed himself of Granada, and reduced the Moors to the short alternative of baptism or death. This had the desired effect, that of converting the inhabitants; but whether they were likewise convinced, will perhaps, even in the opinions of the most zealous Catholics, admit of some doubt.

Malaga, an ancient sea-port, in 36 degrees 51 minutes north latitude, and 4 degrees 56 minutes west longitude, stands at the foot of a steep mountain; and is no less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce, than for the luxuriance of the surrounding soil, which yields the most delicious fruits in great abundance; while the rugged mountains in the vicinity afford those delicious grapes which produce that celebrated wine known in England by the name of Mountain. This city is of a circular form, large and populous, and surrounded with a double wall strengthened by stately towers.

Malaga remained in the possession of the Moors seven hundred and seventy-three years, but was taken by King Ferdinand in 1487, after a bloody and obstinate siege of three months. Off Cape Malaga, near this city, the English and Dutch, under Sir George Rooke, obtained a signal victory over the French fleet commanded by the Count de Thoulouse, in August 1704.

Madrid, the capital of New Castile, and the metropolis of all Spain, is situated in 40 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 15 minutes west longitude; being built on a chain of little hills, in the centre of a large plain terminated on all sides by lofty mountains whose summits are perpetually covered with snow. On the west of the city flows the Manzanares, which, though naturally a shallow stream, is much augmented in winter by the melting of the snow. The city walls, which are constructed of mud only, seem neither calculated for defence nor ornament. The streets amount to about four hundred, some of which are spacious and airy, well paved, and lighted: but in general, they are so narrow and dirty, that they disgrace the name of a capital. The inhabitants have been calculated

at upwards of 300,000; but as population does not at present appear to be on the increase in this kingdom, the real number may perhaps be considerably less.

The houses of Madrid are chiefly of brick, laid out in a shewy taste, without any regard to the more important consideration of convenience; it being necessary to pass through several empty apartments of considerable magnitude, in order to reach the family, who usually occupy a small room at one extremity of the building. In general, however, they have more the appearance of prisons than of houses; the windows, besides having balconies, being grated, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the upper ones. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and some other European capitals. Foreigners who visit this city frequently experience the utmost inconvenience in obtaining lodgings, the Spaniards being averse to the reception of strangers into their houses, especially if they are not Roman Catholics. Indeed, the greatest excellency of Madrid consists in the amazing cheapness of its provisions; for, in most other respects, it is far from being agreeable, as neither tavern, coffee-house, nor newspaper, (the Madrid Gazette excepted) is to be met with in the whole city.

This metropolis, which contains fourteen squares, some of which are amazingly fine, and a variety of beautiful public and private edifices, is under the government of a principal officer called the Corregidor, who is nominated by the king; subordinate to whom are forty-one Regidores, not unlike our aldermen, who compose his council, and act under his direction.

The royal palace at Madrid, for extent and magnificence, is almost unrivalled; it is built of white stone, in a square form, on the most elevated extremity of the town, and measures four hundred feet in front. The grand saloon of state is one hundred and twenty feet long, hung with the richest crimson velvet superbly embroidered with gold, and ornamented with twelve looking-glasses made at St. Ildefonso, each ten feet high; and the paintings are numerous and capital. Several other royal palaces are dispersed round Madrid, for pleasure, hunting, or retirement; some of which are finished in the most magnificent stile, and contain paintings of inestimable value; particularly those of Buen Retiro, Casa de Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

The palaces of Buen Retiro and Casa de Campo contain little worthy of observation, being principally remarkable for the beauty of their situation: but a late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. To this royal seat belongs a park, several leagues in circumference, cut across in different parts by alleys extending two, three, and even four miles, and wide enough to admit four coaches abreast; each of which is formed by two double rows of elm-trees, which render the shade almost impervious to the rays of the sun; and betwixt each double row is a narrow channel through which a streamlet glides. Thick groves of various smaller trees occupy the spaces between those alleys; in which thousands of deer, wild boars, hares, and rabbits, live at large; besides pheasants, partridges, and a variety of other birds. The River Tagus divides this park into two unequal parts; and in the central point stands the king's palace, partly surrounded by a garden adorned with fountains and statues, and filled with an immense variety of the most beautiful flowers collected from every part of the universe. The palace itself is rather an elegant

elegant than magnificent structure, but extremely agreeable on account of it's surrounding embellishments.

The palace of St. Ildefonso, near sixty miles distant from Madrid, is built of brick plaistered and painted, being two stories high, and containing twelve rooms in a suite; and the approach to it is in a bold stile, somewhat similar to that of Versailles. The gardens are laid out on a slope, on the summit of which is a grand reservoir of water called El Mar, or The Sea, which supplies the fountains, and is itself filled by the mountain torrents. The above gardens are said to have cost the immense sum of five millions sterling, and contain twenty-seven fountains, the basons of which are of white marble adorned with many excellent statues, bronzed and gilt: they are likewise embellished with upwards of sixty beautiful marble statues as large as life, with a considerable number of elegant marble and lead vases gilt. The upper part of the palace is ornamented with many capital paintings; and the inferior is enriched with antique statues, busts, and basso-relievos.

But all these palaces, though amazingly magnificent and rich, fall infinitely short of that of the Escorial, which is the pride of Spain, the admiration of travellers, and perhaps the most expensive royal residence at present in the universe. Philip II. the founder of this superb pile, expended on it no less than six millions of ducats; but, notwithstanding the incredible sums laid out by his successors, in furniture, statues, paintings, and other royal decorations, it by no means, on the whole, displays either elegance of taste or chastity of design. The device of the building, which is that of a Gridiron, (because St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, is said to have been broiled on one) is ridiculous to the highest degree, and could no where have originated but in the brain of such a fanatic as Philip II. The profusion of ornaments cannot reconcile the eye of taste to the proportions of the whole; and though some of the different structures of which it is composed are really master-pieces of architecture, they lose their beauty by the surrounding contrasts. As a particular description of the Escorial would alone fill a volume, we shall only remark, that it contains a prodigious number of windows; and that the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and curious stones of inestimable value.

Besides the palace, this fabric contains a church, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, a library enriched with a choice collection of thirty thousand volumes, large apartments for every ingenious artist and mechanic, noble walks, and ornaments too numerous to be recited. The fathers who live in the convent have an annual revenue of 12,000l. sterling. The mausoleum, or royal burying-place, is called the Pantheon, from it's being built upon the plan of the temple of that name at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's; and in the Escorial church are eight organs, one of them of massy silver, which are all performed on together on solemn festivals.

Toledo, a city of great antiquity, and for some centuries reputed the capital of all Spain, is situated in 51 degrees 56 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 20 minutes west longitude, on a steep craggy rock, almost surrounded by the Tagus, over which two stately bridges are erected. The land-side is fortified by a double wall, adorned with an hundred and fifty towers, and five large gates, besides posterns. The surrounding plain is spacious, fertile,

fertile, and pleasant; and so well watered by the Tagus, that it produces almost every thing that can contribute to the convenience or delight of man. The air is peculiarly grateful and salubrious; provisions are surprizingly cheap; and, in short, every thing conspires to render Toledo one of the most desirable situations in Spain. But Madrid, being the seat of government, and the resort of the noble and opulent, has stripped Toledo of most of its inhabitants, and lessened its consequence so considerably, that it would long since, in all probability, have been almost deserted, had not the immense emoluments of its cathedral, which are principally spent in it, greatly contributed to the support of the few remaining inhabitants, whose principal trade is the manufacture of sword-blades and some silk stuffs.

The cathedral is a Gothic structure of vast magnitude, in a barbarous taste, but highly ornamented, and containing treasure of inestimable value. The vestments of the priests and the sacred utensils are all of the richest materials and finest workmanship; the image of the Virgin Mary has a garment covered with pearls; the custodia, jewels, precious stones, and altars of massive silver gilt, are even beyond imagination; and, in short, this is one of the richest cathedrals in the universe, its archbishopric, both in power and revenue, being inferior to that of Rome only.

Bilboa, the capital of Navarre, is situated in a plain surrounded by mountains, about six miles from the sea, in 43 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and in 3 degrees 10 minutes west longitude. Standing on the River Ybaizabal, the tide wafts up ships of considerable burden to the mole, while larger vessels anchor in the road. The city contains about eight hundred houses, having a large square on the water-side shaded with rows of stately trees, which extend to the outlets on the banks of the river; where a great number of houses and gardens enjoy a most delightful prospect: for, exclusive of the beautiful verdure which every where presents itself, the numerous objects gradually opening to the eye, and the town itself appearing as seated in a vast amphitheatre, enliven the landscape, and complete the scenery.

The houses are lofty and commodious; and the streets, which are well paved and straight, and may be washed at pleasure by the admission of the water from the river, render Bilboa one of the neatest commercial towns in Europe.

Segovia, a city of great antiquity in Old Castile, and still a place of considerable importance, stands between two hills, in a sweet and salubrious air. The number of families are supposed to amount to four thousand, whose principal manufactures are those of cloth and paper.

This city contains several elegant squares; a royal palace; a beautiful modern town-house, the principal mint of all Spain, where thirty thousand ducats are often coined in a day; and a variety of other public structures, no less celebrated for their antiquity than their beauty.

The cathedral is a superb pile in the Gothic taste, containing two choirs, in a manner surrounded by an ample basilica, lined on the wall-side with a variety of fine altars and magnificent shrines. The painted glass is well executed, and admits a dim light, which renders the place peculiarly solemn. In an old cloister adjoining to the cathedral are suspended some hundreds of vestments, the badges of as many unfortunate Jews, who were burnt

burnt alive because their faith differed from that of the inquisitor-general, whose court at that time was established at this place.

In this cathedral is a grant of Queen Urraca respecting the Alcazar, or royal palace, which concludes in the following impious manner: 'Whosoever shall violate this grant, let them be ever banished from God's threshold, and be eternally tormented with Dathan and Abiram, whom the earth swallowed: be damned with the traitor Judas; and pay a thousand pounds of unalloyed gold to the bishop.'

But nothing in this place is so well worth notice as the Sogovian aqueduct, which extends to a small river called Rio Frio, at least five hundred paces from the city. This machine conveys the water to the middle of the city, from whence it supplies the public fountains, the cisterns of convents, and even private houses. The arches over which the water flows are numerous, and in a very bold stile; and were undoubtedly the work of the ancient Romans, but under what emperor is unknown, though many ascribe the erection of this famous aqueduct to Trajan.

The ancient city of Salamanca, in Leon, situated in 41 degrees 5 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 16 minutes west longitude, is built in a circular form on three hills and two vallies, enjoying on every side a prospect of noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages. This city contains twenty-five parochial churches, twenty-five convents of friars, twenty-five convents of nuns, and ten noble gates. The most splendid part of the city is the great square, built about fifty years ago. The houses are three stories high, and all of equal heights and exact symmetry, with iron balconies and stone balustrades on their tops, the lower parts being arched, and forming a piazza of two hundred and ninety-three feet on each side of the square. Over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the Spanish monarchs: and there are also several eminent men in basso-relievo, particularly Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days successively in the month of June. The River Tormes runs by this city, having a bridge of twenty-five arches over it, which was built by the Romans, and is still entire.

The university of Salamanca, which contains twenty-four colleges, was removed hither from Palencia in 1239, and is the most celebrated of any in Spain. The colleges are in general noble and well-endowed structures, and the great public schools possess extraordinary grandeur and magnificence. In a word, the Spaniards term this city the Mother of Virtue, Sciences, and Arts.

Ferrol, in Galicia, from being only a small dirty fishing-town so lately as the year 1752, has already become a city of importance, and the first marine arsenal in the kingdom. A magnificent basin, fifteen hundred yards long, and six hundred broad, is formed for the reception of ships. The port is extremely strong towards the sea, and capable of being secured with the same facility on the land-side. In 1774, no fewer than six thousand men, besides six hundred convicts, were employed in completing the improvements which the Spanish government had projected for the beauty and utility of the place.

Vigo, a town standing on a small bay about an hundred miles north-west of Madrid, is principally famous for a sea-fight off the harbour, in 1702, between Sir George Rooke commander of the English and Dutch fleets, and a squadron of French men of war with

thirteen Spanish galleons under their convoy; when the British admiral having broke through the boom laid across the mouth of the harbour, took four galleons and five men of war, and the Dutch five galleons and one man of war; and also destroyed four galleons and fourteen men of war, with a vast quantity of plate and other rich effects. In 1719, the English again possessed themselves of this place, but relinquished it after raising considerable contributions.

St. Jago Compostella, the capital of Galicia, is situated in 42 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 20 minutes west longitude, between the Rivers Tambre and Ulla, in a plain of prodigious fertility, enriched with hills of a moderate height, which shelter it from the nipping winds blowing from the more lofty mountains. A considerable degree of magnificence is displayed in the public edifices in general; but the most famous by far the cathedral, which is said to contain the body of James the Younger, the tutelary saint and patron of all Spain. This body, as the legend relates, was first discovered in the ninth century by divine revelation. A circumstance of so wonderful a nature, in a popish country, can hardly fail to attract a vast number of pilgrims and devotees; and hence the priests live in luxury, and every species of dissipation, through the superstitious folly of mankind. In the church are thirty silver lamps continually burning; and six chandeliers of the same metal, each five feet high.

Seville, the capital of Andalusia, stands in 37 degrees 15 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 5 minutes west longitude, in a spacious plain on the banks of the Guadalquivir, two hundred miles south-west of Madrid. Abundant proofs of the antiquity of this city still remain; particularly the present walls, which are kept in constant repair at the public expence, and are unquestionably of Roman foundation. While the Moors were masters of Spain, this city was the residence of their kings; but Don Fernando el Santo having taken it from the Moorish monarch Axatafe in 1248, after a siege of sixteen months, no less than an hundred thousand Moors are said to have abandoned the city. The circumference within the walls is six miles, and, including the suburbs, three leagues; but, considering the extent, it is far from being populous. The streets in general are narrow and irregular; and, though many of the houses make a handsome appearance, far the greater number are very inelegant and incommodious. The principal manufactures are wool and silk; but the great office of Spanish American commerce being removed to Cadiz, Seville is become much less considerable than formerly.

The cathedral is a fine Gothic building, having a curious steeple with a moveable figure of a woman at the top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and is referred to by Cervantes in Don Quixote. This steeple, which is higher than St. Paul's in London, is esteemed one of the greatest curiosities in Spain. The first clock made in the kingdom was set up in this cathedral in 1400, in the presence of Henry III.

The royal palace, called Abazar, is of Moorish architecture, but not very magnificent; the gardens belonging to it are laid out in a very antique taste, and the walks are ornamented with gigantic figures in different shapes and attitudes. The other public structures are unworthy of particular mention, except that their antiquity, and the extravagant taste in which they are built, render them objects of curiosity to strangers.

Seville.



J. B. Anderson, Sc.

J. Roberts, 1855

ANDALUSIA.

Seville has a considerable foreign trade in lemons, oranges, and other fruits; vast quantities of which are exported to several European countries, particularly England.

Cadiz, the grand emporium of Spanish commerce, is situated on an island in 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and 6 degrees 40 minutes west longitude, being united to the continent by the bridge of Suaco, both ends of which are defended by redoubts and other raised-works of earth. This island, which is about eighteen miles long and seven broad, produces little grain, but yields some of the best wines in Spain.

The city of Cadiz is of considerable circumference, and contains a great number of handsome buildings, generally three or four stories high; thirteen convents; and a cathedral. But Cadiz derives more consequence from its trade than all other causes combined: both before and after the arrival of the Spanish American fleet, it is crowded with strangers, sometimes to the number of fifty thousand, who resort thither on account of trade, which occasions an extraordinary circulation of cash, and renders house-rent and provisions very dear; and, being the centre of the whole American trade, the several European nations are furnished with their respective agents, correspondents, factors, and consuls; which last live in a most splendid stile.

The merchants of Cadiz enjoy the uncommon privilege of carrying on an extensive trade without any risque to themselves; seldom venturing much on their own account, but enriching themselves at the hazard of those who send goods to this place for exportation. However, they are greatly distinguished for probity in their dealings, which induces foreigners to repose the most implicit confidence in their honour, and to trust their effects and fortunes in their hands.

The harbour and bay of Cadiz are spacious and secure, the entrance being defended by Fort Matagorda, which covers both; and also by Fort Punta, on the opposite shore; to both which forts the Spaniards give the name of Los Puntales. In 1596, this city was plundered and burnt by the English, but it was rebuilt by the Spaniards a short time after; and in 1702, our forces made another attempt upon it, which proved unsuccessful.

Gibraltar, the Gibel Tarf of the Moors, and once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, is at present in the possession of Great Britain. It was taken from the Spaniards in 1704, after a siege of only two days, by the combined fleets of England and Holland, under the command of Sir George Rooke; and, after many ineffectual attempts to recover it on the part of Spain, it was confirmed to Britain by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Reiterated efforts, however, have since been made for its recovery at various periods, but without success; particularly in the late war, when it underwent a long and close siege, but was defended with the most heroic bravery, as well as the most consummate skill, by the immortal General Eliott. A siege of such duration, and carried on by such numbers, rarely occurs in history; and certain it is, that the defence then made by the British may be ranked among the most memorable that ever happened: the combined fleets of France and Spain, together with an army of more than sixty thousand men, headed by the ablest generals, supplied with every thing that could ensure success, and who had recourse to every means that the inventive genius of man could contrive for the destruction of the human race, found their utmost efforts baffled by the conduct and courage of one British veteran, who

who inspired his men with an enthusiastic bravery which rendered them superior to difficulties, dangers, and wants.

Gibraltar is a commodious port, formed by nature for commanding the passage of the Straits; or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant Seas: but the road is neither safe against an enemy, nor sheltered from storms. The bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The Straits are twenty-four miles long and fifteen broad; through which sets a strong current from the Atlantic Ocean into the Mediterranean, for the stemming of which a brisk gale is requisite. The town itself is neither large nor beautiful; but, being esteemed the key of Spain, and of the Mediterranean, it is always furnished with a strong garrison provided with every thing necessary for a defence; and the harbour, which is formed by a mole, is well fortified, and planted with innumerable guns.

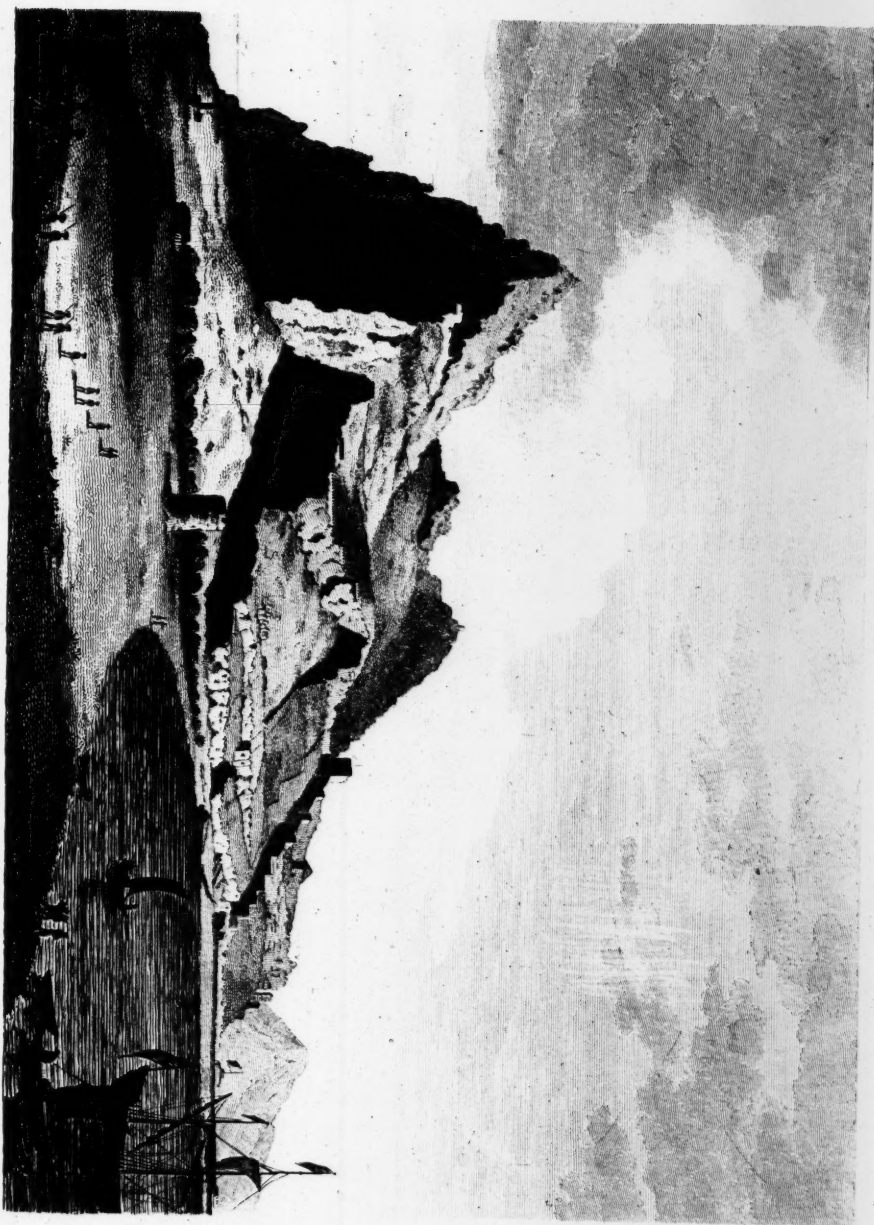
Gibraltar is only accessible on the land-side by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, but which is so well secured both by art and nature as to render it almost impregnable. There are two gates on the land-side, and the same number towards the sea. Across the isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, principally with a view to preclude the garrison from any intercourse with the country behind them; but, notwithstanding this precaution, a clandestine trade is in peaceable times briskly carried on in tobacco and some other articles of which the Spaniards are remarkably fond. The garrison is confined within very narrow limits; and as the little ground Gibraltar contains scarcely produces any vegetables, all their provisions are brought either from England, or from the opposite Barbary coast.

Formerly Gibraltar was entirely subject to military law; but such a government being incompatible with the native liberty of British subjects in every other part of the globe, and liable to many abuses and inconveniences, the parliament of England thought proper to erect it into a body-corporate.

When part of the rock of Gibraltar was blown up for a particular purpose, many pieces of bones and teeth were found incorporated with the stone, some of which have been brought to England and deposited in the British Museum. On the west side of the mountain is St. Michael's Cave, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon, in which are many pillars of various sizes, formed by the perpetual dropping of water from the roof, which petrifies in falling, and forms an infinite number of stalactitæ of a whitish colour, composed of several incrustations; which, as well as the pillars, by continually increasing in bulk, might in time probably fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock of Gibraltar is an immensely extensive prospect, not only of the bay, the straits, and several parts of Spain, but also of Mount Abyla, one of the pillars of Hercules on the African shore, the city of Ceuta, and great part of Barbary.

The city of Cordova, the Corduba and Colonia Patricia of antiquity, lies in 37 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and in 4 degrees 53 minutes west longitude, on a spacious and pleasant plain watered by the Guadalquivir, over which there is a stately bridge of sixteen arches, said to have been built in 720. On the north side of the town runs the Sierra Morena, a remarkable chain of mountains, stretching inland upwards of two hundred miles from the sea.

Cordova



VIEW OF GIBRALTAR.

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Cordova appears to have been of considerable consequence in the time of the Romans; and, under the government of the Moors, was esteemed a capital of the first consideration. The walls are partly of Roman, and partly of Moorish architecture, in many places entire, but not preserved in any proper repair. This city is pretty extensive, but badly built; the streets are narrow and irregular, and consequently dirty and unpleasant.

The cathedral is a large, antique, and magnificent square structure, built by the Moors for a mosque; its roof being supported by three hundred and sixty-five stately pillars of alabaster, jasper, and black marble. In 1586, Cordova was almost ruined by an earthquake. This city has long been famous for its leather; whence the English word Cordwain, from Cordovan.

The surrounding mountains are clothed with delightful gardens, and plantations of olives, oranges, lemons, and figs; and interspersed with pleasant vallies, refreshed by several excellent springs. When the trees are in blossom, they diffuse a fragrance over the whole surrounding country; which, though perhaps inimical to health, is very grateful to the smell.

In giving a concise detail of the Spanish history, we must first observe that, for the sake of commerce, the southern coast was anciently frequented by the Phœnicians; who sending colonies hither, built Cadiz and Malaga. When the rival republics of Rome and Carthage started up, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful nations; but the Romans triumphing over every opposition, Spain fell into their hands, and remained a tributary province till the dissolution of the empire, when it became a prey to the Goths: these having maintained their power about two centuries, in their turn were invaded by the Saracens; who, towards the close of the seventh century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and, not satisfied with the immense regions which formerly composed the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they crossed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and established themselves in the frontier provinces of that kingdom.

These Infidels, who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, received many signal overthrows under the conduct of Don Pelago, the first old Spanish prince on record, who assumed the title of King of Asturia about the year of the Christian æra 720. His successes animating other Christian princes to vindicate their power by arms, the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal were involved in bloody wars for a succession of ages. Mean while, every adventurer possessed himself of the territories he wrested from the Moors; till Spain was at last divided into twelve or fourteen kingdoms, which not only continually waged war with the Moors, but also with each other; and hence their history becomes very intricate and perplexed.

About the year 1095, Henry Duke of Burgundy was declared Count of Portugal by the King of Leon; but his son Alphonso disclaiming any allegiance to Leon, assumed the exercise of sovereign power himself. A series of brave princes repeatedly defeated the Moors in Spain; and the most powerful kingdoms of Arragon and Castile having swallowed up the rest, about the year 1475, these two were at last united by the marriage of Ferdinand King of Arragon with Isabella, the heiress and afterwards Queen of Castile; who, taking Granada, expelled upwards of 170,000 families of Moors and Jews from Spain.

Isabella, the consort of Ferdinand, by patronizing the immortal Columbus, acquired lasting glory; and, by a munificence which cost her little, added another quarter to the globe. To descant on the consequences of this discovery, is not at present our design. Perhaps it would have been fortunate for Europe had America been still unknown; and still more so for the natives of that disunited continent, had Europe's avaricious sons never touched on their coasts.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews in a great measure deprived Spain of its most useful artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only added to the calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards intolerably indolent through the influx of Transatlantic wealth. To compleat their misfortunes, the horrid tribunal of the inquisition was established under the auspices of Ferdinand and Isabella; which, though intended principally as a protection against the return of the Moors and Jews, operated fatally for Spain, fettering the exertions of the human mind, adding torpitude to native indolence, and rendering genius and invention misfortunes rather than blessings to their possessors.

Charles V. of the House of Austria, and Emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. The extensive possessions of the House of Austria at that time in Europe, Africa, and America, justly alarmed the jealousy of the neighbouring potentates, but could not gratify the ambition of Charles, who was constantly engaged in foreign wars, or domestic broils, with his Protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to recal to the Catholic church. At length, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a resolution which astonished Europe, that of withdrawing himself entirely from the noise and bustle of secular affairs, and spending the remainder of his days in solitude and retirement. In consequence of this determination, he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of the principal nobility, to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the German princes to elect him emperor; which honour they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the House of Austria into two branches: Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and America, the Netherlands, and some Italian states, remaining with the elder branch; while the Empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger; a portion which they still inherit.

Charles, after having made this surrender, retired to the place he had chosen for his retreat, reserving to himself no more of all his vast possessions than an annual pension of 100,000 crowns: there he buried in solitude and silence that ambition and grandeur which had alarmed and agitated Europe for near half a century; and, after spending two years wholly in an uninterrupted attention to the duties of religion, he was seized with a fever, which swept him off the stage of life in the 59th year of his age.

Philip II. on his elevation to the throne, betrayed all the vices of his father, without the smallest intermixture of his good qualities. He was ambitious to excess, haughty and austere, and an unrelenting bigot in the cause of popery, throughout the whole course of his life. He espoused Mary, Queen of England; a sanguinary bigot like himself; and, after her death, paid his addresses in form to her sister Elizabeth, who rejected the proposed union. In consequence of this refusal, he engaged in a war with that princess, fitting out the fa-

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mous Armada for the conquest of England, on which occasion he came off with such signal disgrace. His tyranny in the Low Countries, as already noticed, produced a revolt, with the loss of the United Provinces; and, in short, if we except Portugal, misfortune every where attended his arms.

Portugal, after having been governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian about the year 1557. This monarch having undertaken an unjust and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors in Africa, lost his life, together with a fine army, in that country; on which Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family instituted a prior claim, insisting on a superior right. By this acquisition Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, many of which she still retains.

Though the descendants of Philip proved weak and impolitic princes, he and his father having totally ruined the original liberty of the natives, they continued to reign in their own dominions with unmolested despotism. Their viceroys, however, exercising the most tyrannical and insolent authority over the Portuguese, drove that nation to violence and rebellion; and the nobility, about the year 1640, engaging in a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the Duke of Braganza on the throne, by the title of John IV. since which period Portugal has maintained its original independence on Spain.

Charles II. of Spain, the last king of the Austrian line, dying without issue, Philip Duke of Anjou, second son to the Dauphin of France, and grandson to Louis XIV. mounted the throne of Spain, in consequence of his predecessor's will, by the name of Philip V. in 1701. A long and bloody struggle intervened between him and the German branch of the House of Austria, supported by England, before he was confirmed in his dignity by the peace of Utrecht concluded in 1713. Thus Louis XIV. by a masterly train of politics, accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the East Indies, from the House of Austria, to that of his own family, the House of Bourbon.

The reign of Philip V. was rendered turbulent and uneasy through the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma; who, intermeddling with politics, disturbed the peace of his life and the honour of his government. He died in 1746, leaving his son Ferdinand VI. his successor; who, through grief and melancholy for the loss of his beloved wife, followed her in 1759, without issue.

Charles III. his present Catholic Majesty, and son to Philip V. by his queen the Princess of Parma, a prince more celebrated for endeavouring to introduce the French modes among his subjects than for any other action of his reign, succeeded his brother Ferdinand. Indeed, so far did his efforts for this purpose proceed, that they occasioned a dangerous insurrection at Madrid; for the quelling of which he was compelled to dismiss his favourite minister the Marquis of Squillace, thereby affording an instance that even despotism itself must yield to the unanimous opinion of numbers. When the war before last broke out between France and England, so warmly attached was the King of Spain to the family-compact of the House of Bourbon, that he even hazarded his American dominions in its support. War being declared between him and England, the latter took the Havannah, in the Isle of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish Plate fleets;

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but, notwithstanding the prodigious success which attended the British arms, this acquisition was restored to Spain at the termination of the war. The Spanish ministry concerted an expedition, in 1775, against Algiers, which failed in every instance: their troops, amounting to 24,000 men, commanded by Lieutenant-general O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algiers, but were disgracefully driven back to their ships, with very heavy loss.

After the French had for some time espoused the part of the British American insurgents against the parent country, the court of Spain was also prevailed on by that nation to commence hostilities with Great Britain; but the chief advantage she has derived from engaging in this expensive contest, is the cession of Minorca, which formerly belonged to the Spanish crown.

C H A P. XII.

PORTUGAL.

THIS country, the Lusitania of antiquity, and the most western kingdom of Europe, is bounded on the north by the Spanish province of Galicia; on the east by the provinces of Leon, Estramadura, and Andalusia; and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean; extending from 36 degrees 50 minutes to 40 degrees 3 minutes north latitude, and from 7 to 10 degrees of west longitude from London. Its length from Valença, the most northern town, to Sagres the most southern, is about three hundred and ten miles; and its greatest breadth, from Peniche, a sea-port in Estramadura, to Salvaterra, or the Spanish frontiers, is an hundred and twelve.

The climate of Portugal is in general much more temperate than that of Spain, because of its vicinity to the sea; and the air of Lisbon in particular is esteemed so gentle and salubrious, that consumptive patients from the most distant European countries frequently try it as their last resort. But though the temperature of the climate is superior to that of Spain, the soil is by no means so fertile, which obliges the Portuguese to import the greatest part of their corn. The fruits are similar to those of Spain, but their flavour is not quite so delicious. The Portuguese wines, however, when old and genuine, are esteemed the most friendly of any to the human constitution, though they are with difficulty procured in an unadulterated state. Port wines, so copiously drank in England, are made in the district round Oporto, which does not produce half the quantity consumed under that name in the British dominions only.

Portugal, which is in many parts extremely mountainous and rocky, contains the ores of silver, copper, tin, and iron; but the Portuguese being amply supplied with metals, and particularly gold, from their possessions in America and other parts of the globe, no mines are worked in their own country. Gems of various kinds, such as turquoises and jacinths; a beautiful species of veined marble; and many curious fossils of the lapidary kind; are found in different provinces: and, on the hill of Alcantara, in the vicinity of Lisbon, there is a remarkable mine of saltpetre.

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All the principal rivers in Portugal have their sources in Spain, and fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The most celebrated are the Minho, the Luna, the Duoro, and the Tajo, or Tagus, the largest river in the kingdom, celebrated by the poets for its golden sands. Portugal also contains several famous lakes and springs: some absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some medicinal and sanative; and some hot, and adapted for bathing.

The chief promontories and capes in this kingdom are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the River Mondego; Cape Roca, at the entrance of the River Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarva. The bays are those of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, south of Lisbon; and the Bay of Lagos, in Algarva.

The coasts of Portugal produce abundance of excellent fish; and the land is equally well stocked with animals and fowls, both wild and domestic. The mules in this country are extremely serviceable, both for draught and carriage; and the horses, though slightly made, are spirited and lively.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well proportioned as their neighbours the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate, but exceed them in their affectation of splendor. The ladies are slender, and of small stature; their complexions a delicate olive; their eyes black and expressive; and their features pleasing and regular: they are characterized as generous, modest, and witty; and dress, like the Spanish ladies, with much affected gravity, but at the same time with the utmost magnificence; exacting, in general, from their servants and dependants, a homage which in other countries is only paid to royalty. A Portuguese writer thus describes his own countrymen: 'The nobility,' says he, 'think themselves gods, and require a sort of adoration; the gentry aspire to equal them; and the common people disdain to be considered as inferior to either.' Hence the grandes affect the utmost splendor in their furniture and equipage; retain an incredible number of menial servants in their train; and, by launching out into an extravagant ostentation to which their revenues are inadequate, subject themselves to all the inconveniences of splendid poverty. The poor, who are in general almost destitute of every necessary domestic utensil, in imitation of the Moors, always sit cross-legged on the ground.

The modern Portuguese scarcely retain a vestige of that enterprising spirit which, about three centuries ago, rendered their ancestors so illustrious. Since the Braganza family ascended the throne, they have degenerated in all their virtues; and, were we to give full credit to the reports of historians and travellers, we should be induced to pass a general censure on the whole nation. But it must be confessed, that many noble examples of honour, probity, and virtue, still exist among them; and though the imbecillity of their monarchy renders them inactive, and that inactivity introduces pride and other similar vices, there are still many among them whose lives are honourable to themselves and beneficial to society. Treachery, ingratitude, and, above all, an insatiable thirst for revenge, have generally been laid to their charge; nor, perhaps, can they be wholly exculpated from the accusation. They are, if possible, more superstitious than the Spaniards; and, both in high and common life, assume more consequential airs of self-importance. Among the lower ranks, theft is so commonly practised, as to render it hardly regarded as a crime. It is difficult, however, to pronounce what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese by the expulsion of

the Jesuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them; and, above all, by that spirit of independency on Great Britain with regard to commercial affairs, which in violation of the ties of gratitude, and the stronger ties of reciprocal advantage, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

According to the best calculations which can be made on such a fluctuating subject, Portugal contains about two millions of inhabitants, of which three hundred thousand of both sexes are ecclesiastics.

In their way of living, the Portuguese are remarkably sober and abstemious, the men mixing water with their wine, and the women using water only. As in other warm climates, it is usual for the natives to retire to rest about noon on account of the heat, and to transact the principal part of their business in the mornings and evenings.

The favourite diversion of this people, like that of the Spaniards, is their bull-feasts, or bull-hunting; which is generally exhibited, on a Sunday afternoon, in a spacious amphitheatre called Campo Pequeno, about four miles from Lisbon; the king, the royal family, the court, and even ecclesiastics of every rank, countenancing that inhuman diversion with the same unfeeling curiosity.

The Portuguese, as well as the Spaniards, believe the Gospel to have been first promulgated among them by James the Elder; and, in their religious opinions, they are the most bigotted Papists. Though the exercise of the Jewish religion is prohibited by the fundamental laws of the kingdom, all authors agree that numbers of secret Jews still remain among the Portuguese, and even among the very ecclesiastics and inquisitors themselves. John III. introduced the inquisition into this country, which is very active in detecting heretics, and no less so in punishing them: impious, cruel, and inhuman, as this tribunal is, its festivals, or solemn burnings, called *Auto da Fe*, or the Act of Faith, afford the highest delight to these infernal bigots, who exult in the tortures of their fellow-creatures, and deem them the most acceptable worship. The power of the inquisition, however, is now taken out of the hands of the ecclesiastics, and converted into a state-trap for the benefit of the crown. The papal authority in Portugal is likewise much abridged, and the royal revenues are greatly increased at the expence of the religious institutions in that kingdom.

The archbishoprics are those of Braga, Evora, and Lisbon; the first of which has ten suffragan bishops; the second two; and the last ten, including those of the Portuguese foreign settlements. The patriarch of Lisbon is generally a cardinal, and a person of the highest birth.

The number of convents, which amount to near nine hundred, are in general provided with ample revenues for their support; but the Jesuits, who in multitude and opulence formerly surpassed all the other religious orders, have lately been expelled the kingdom.

The Portuguese language differs from that of Spain only provincially, with the addition of some words originally borrowed from other nations; and is esteemed strong, energetic, and expressive.

Sound learning and liberal science are banished from Portugal by the decretals of the church; and though there are universities at Coimbra and Evora, and several academies of royal

royal institution, all attempts to diffuse useful knowledge are defeated by the tyrannic sway of superstition. The schools of this country, indeed, are the retreats of sophistry and error, which Newton, Galilæo, and other celebrated philosophers, have driven from the rest of Europe; and those names which are in other countries treated with the highest veneration, are here branded with the titles of atheists and heretics, and never mentioned but with marks of execration. In short, so little has literature flourished in this kingdom, that even those of the Portuguese themselves who have the smallest tincture of science mention it with indignation. Some feeble efforts, however, have lately been made by the government to awake them from this deplorable ignorance; but neither their political nor religious institutions are favourable to the growth of genius. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world besides, about the middle of the sixteenth century; but we hardly meet with one name transmitted to posterity as eminent for literary abilities, except the poetic Camoens, who was himself a great adventurer and voyager, and possessed all the enthusiasm of uncultivated genius. His *Lusiad*, which has been elegantly translated into English by the ingenious Mr. Mickles, will at least rescue his country from the general charge of literary deficiency.

Commerce and manufactures have taken a surprizing turn within these few years; and new companies and regulations have been projected by the Portuguese ministry, militating most essentially against those privileges which the British merchants formerly enjoyed by virtue of the most solemn treaties.

The Portuguese exchange their wines, fruit, and other articles, for foreign manufactures; they fabricate some linen, woollen, and coarse silk; and are peculiarly famous for candying and preserving fruits. Their commerce, however, though seemingly extensive, is not attended with any solid benefit, as the other European nations engross all the productions of the Portuguese colonies, as well as their native commodities, which they barter for the produce and numberless manufactures of the principal commercial nations of Europe.

The Portuguese settlements in America and the Indies are not only of immense present value, but capable of vast improvement. From their plantations on the east and west coasts of Africa, they import gold, and carry slaves for the use of their American colonies. The Brazils not only produce sugar, tobacco, and a variety of the tropical fruits, but likewise abound in mines of gold and silver, and afford a variety of precious stones. The sovereign's fifth of gold, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade, amounts annually to 300,000l. sterling; a convincing proof of the immense gross amount.

The king of Portugal is in many respects an arbitrary monarch; but the nation still preserves an appearance of it's ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes, or states, composed of the nobility, clergy, and commons; who, on the imposition of new taxes, the settlement of the succession, and other important concerns, pretend to a right of being consulted: but the only real power they possess, is that of being indulged with giving their assent to every new regulation respecting the succession, in order to prevent all future disputes on that account.

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The highest office is the Council of State, composed of an equal number of clergy and nobility, together with the secretaries of state; by which all the important affairs of the kingdom are transacted, and all ecclesiastical and temporal offices disposed of. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts settle those relative to finance. The Council of the Palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals, but from that of the *Casa da Supplicação* there is no appeal. The laws of Portugal, which are grounded on the civil law, are comprized in three duodecimo volumes; but as arbitrary power can explain, pervert, or enlarge at pleasure, they only serve for a general rule of action.

The royal revenues have been computed at three millions and a half sterling annually; arising principally from the hereditary estates of the royal house of Braganza, to which fifty villas belong; from the royal domains; from customs; from taxes; from the excise, which is very high, and paid even by the clergy; from a monopoly of Brazil snuff; from coinage; from the sale of indulgences; from the grand-masterships of the orders of knighthood; from ecclesiastical tithes in foreign countries; from the fifth part of the produce of Brazilian gold; from the farm of Brazilian diamonds; and from the late suppression of the Jesuits, and other religious orders and institutions.

The Portuguese used formerly to depend upon Great Britain for protection, and therefore neglected their own army and navy to a shameful degree; but the friendly intercourse between these two powers having been in a great measure suspended, (though, during the late reign, the Portuguese received the most effectual assistance from Britain, when their country was invaded by the French and Spaniards) his Most Faithful Majesty judged it expedient to raise a considerable army, chiefly disciplined and officered by foreigners; who not meeting with that encouragement to which they might probably think their military skill entitled them, relinquished their command; and the army of Portugal again sunk to its former insignificance. In the year 1760, the navy consisted of fifteen ships of the line and a few frigates.

His Portuguese majesty is only proclaimed and solemnly acknowledged by the states, to whom he takes a coronation oath, and receives, in his turn, an act of homage; but the actual ceremony of coronation and unction is entirely omitted. His titles run thus: King of Portugal, and the Algarva; Lord of Guinea, and of the Navigation, Conquest, and Commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brazil. The late king was complimented by the Pope with the title of Most Faithful, a distinction now generally applied. The heir-apparent to the crown is stiled Prince of Brazil.

The Portuguese arms are, Argent, Five Escutcheons, Azure, placed cross-wise, each charged with as many Besants as the first, placed saltier-wise, and pointed, Sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, Gules, charged with Seven Towers, three in chief, and two in each flank. The supporters are, Two Winged Dragons, and the crest a Dragon, Or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at its extremity; Two Crosses, the first Fleur-de-lis, Vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the second Patee, Gules, for the order of Christ. The motto is fluctuating, each king generally assuming a new one; but it frequently runs thus: '*Pro Rege et Grege*;' that is, For the King and the People.

The nobility of Portugal are extremely numerous, many of them of the blood-royal, and descended from the natural sons of the royal family. They are divided into high and low; the

the higher, stiled Titled Nobility, consist of dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and barons : those who are grandees, and stiled Dons, like those of Spain, are divided into three classes, and receive from the royal treasury pensions sufficient to support their respective dignities. The sons of a duke are accounted grandees, and his daughters hold the rank of marchionesses. The inferior nobility, or rather the gentry, are termed Fidalgos, and are incapable of being complimented with the title of Don, unless by royal licence.

The principal order of knighthood in Portugal is that of Christ, instituted by King Dennis soon after the abolition of Knights Templars : to this order belong four hundred and fifty commanderies ; and it's badge is a Red Cross with an inferior white one. This order was formerly in the highest estimation, but is now indiscriminately given to all kinds of people who have the character of being zealous Catholics. The order of St. James has forty-seven small towns, and an hundred and fifty commanderies, besides the splendid convent of Santos o Novo, situated a little to the west of Lisbon : the badge of this order is a Red Sword shaped like a cross, the hilt retaining the ancient form. The order of Aviez has forty-nine commanderies, and has for it's badge a Green Cross in form of a lily.

The above three orders are all religious ; but the knights are indulged with liberty to marry ; and the kings of Portugal are their perpetual grand-masters, from which they derive a considerable revenue.

The Knights of Malta have likewise twenty-three commanderies in this kingdom ; but these, as well as the rest, are but little estimated even by the lower ranks.

Portugal is divided into several provinces, viz. Algarva, Alentejo, Guadiana, Entre Tajo, Estremadura, Biera, Tralos Montes, Duoro, and Entre Minho. It's foreign dominions, which were formerly immensely extensive, are now greatly diminished. The Portuguese, however, still possess the Cape de Verd Islands, St. Thome, and the Madeiras, in the Atlantic Ocean ; Fort Magazan, on the coast of Morocco ; and the Cacheo, on the Negro coast ; several forts in the kingdoms of Congo, Angola, Loango, and Monomotapa ; a fort in Monoemugi ; and the towns of Mosambique and Sofala, in the same kingdom. In Asia they hold the towns of Diu, Goa, Onor, Macao, and several others ; and, in America, Brazil and part of Guiana.

We shall now proceed to a description of the principal cities in the kingdom of Portugal, beginning with the most southern ; but must premise, that few of them deserve much attention, either for elegance, extent, or trade. Where the liberal arts are so little known, in vain do we look for splendid structures and works of taste : every city, in some measure, shews the progress of the human mind in useful arts ; and a perverted taste will always display itself on those objects which are most open to public inspection.

Lagos, in Algarva, is situated in a fine bay navigable for the largest ships, in 36 degrees 51 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 36 minutes west longitude, about forty leagues south of Lisbon. It's peculiar situation will not admit of a regular fortification ; the city, however, is walled, and the harbour protected by two forts. The inhabitants hardly amount to three thousand ; but Lagos being the residence of the governor and captain-general of Algarva, there is some shew of opulence among them. At this place the English fleets bound to the Straits generally touch, in order to take in a fresh supply of water.

Evora, a very ancient city of Alentejo, is situated on a hill surrounded by distant mountains, about sixty-eight miles south-east of Lisbon. A Portuguese writer, who has published a volume of antiquities relative to this place, affirms, among other things, that it gave birth to Cicero and Virgil. It is certain, however, that Evora was the residence of the famous Sertorius, who encompassed it with walls, and built an aqueduct, on the ruins of which John III. raised that which now supplies the town with water. The remains of a temple of Diana, with seven pillars of the Corinthian order still entire, are among the principal relics of antiquity.

Evora is an archiepiscopal see, containing twenty-three convents. It is large, but ruinous and depopulated. A modern fortification has been begun, but never completed. Nothing but the gloom of bigotry is to be seen within the walls; for though it is the capital of a province, and the seat of an university, neither trade nor manufactures enliven the scene.

Lisbon, the capital of Estremadura, and the metropolis of the whole kingdom, extends from east to west along the River Tagus, resembling an amphitheatre, in 38 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 57 minutes west longitude. The length of the city is near two miles, but its breadth is inconsiderable. Being situated upon seven hills, their vallies form streets of great length, but most of them are narrow, dirty, and unpleasant. Before the dreadful earthquake on All Saints day, in 1755, Lisbon contained about forty parish-churches besides the cathedral, and as many monasteries of both sexes, with 200,000 inhabitants; but that direful calamity swallowed up about 90,000 of them, and levelled two-thirds of their city. At that dreadful moment the king and royal family were passing, in their carriages, to a palace in the country; and happening to be then in an open space, escaped the miserable fate which on all sides presented itself. Imagination can hardly picture to itself a scene of confusion, horror, and death, more dreadful than this earthquake. After the tremor of the earth had subsided, the fire continued to rage for several weeks, and consumed the greatest part of what had escaped the former ruin. But this conflagration was attended with the most beneficial consequences to the surviving remnant, as it purified the air, which the numerous putrid bodies must otherwise have rendered highly pestilential.

After a variety of debates whether the seat of government should be removed to Coimbra, or Lisbon should be rebuilt, the Marquis of Pombal at last carried it for Lisbon, and the building was immediately begun. Its progress, indeed, has been rapid; and the houses being built of fine white stone, with an agreeable uniformity, they make a very handsome appearance. In the great square, near the centre of the city, the India House, the Exchange, and other public structures, have been erected in a magnificent stile, the genius of the Portuguese strongly prompting them to splendor in public institutions, as well as in private life. A theatre has also been fitted up since the demolition of the city; but so little progress have the Portuguese made in dramatic refinement, that their language could not produce a play worth representation; and the first comedy that was acted, we are credibly informed, was a translation of an English one.

The famous aqueduct of Alcantara, which supplies Lisbon with water, is a noble work, though composed of two different kinds of arches, the one Roman, and the other Gothic. During



Engraved by E. Haden.

From the Sketch by Capt. Elliot.

CINTRA.

During the earthquake, this beneficial structure remained, though many of the key-stones fell several inches, and hung only by the centre's closing again, and catching a small part of them.

The port, which is spacious and secure, is, next to those of London and Amsterdam, deservedly reckoned the greatest in Europe; and, according to the custom-house books, upwards of six hundred European vessels enter it yearly, of which more than one half are British.

The English merchants residing at Lisbon enjoy many immunities; they appoint their own judge, who determines all causes of property in which they are concerned; they have a right to all sorts of necessities for themselves, their families, and their dependants, duty free; are allowed to be prisoners at large for debt; and their packet-boat, which sails weekly, is not subject to the inspection of the custom-house officers.

In the vicinity of Lisbon are several royal palaces; the principal of which is at Mafra, where John V. erected a building of extraordinary magnificence, on a sandy, sterile spot, in consequence of a vow he had made to St. Anthony; emulating, through vanity and superstition, the ostentatious Philip II. of Spain, who built the Escorial on a similar pretext. This grand structure is of a quadrangular form, consisting of a church, two royal apartments, and a convent. The royal apartments on one side of the church are called the King's, and those on the other side the Queen's, having a communication with each other by means of a passage over the church. Few European edifices enjoy a more majestic site, or are richer in princely decorations, than this superb palace, though it has not so noble an appearance as the Escorial. The royal park adjoining to it is about fourteen miles in circumference. When Lisbon was shook to its centre by the earthquake of 1755, this edifice happily received not the smallest damage.

Coimbra, a city and celebrated university in the province of Beira, situated on the River Mondego, contains about twelve thousand inhabitants, a cathedral, nine parish-churches, eight convents, and eighteen colleges. The cathedral, churches, and monasteries, are elegant structures, well adorned and beautified; but the private houses are generally mean, and destitute of elegance and convenience.

The university was so much reduced when the late minister, the Marquis de Pombal, first came into power, that it was totally fallen into the hands of a few ignorant priests; who, inattentive to the purposes of its institution, only regarded the annexed emoluments. The students, indeed, amounted to between six and seven thousand; but, in general, they only entered their names in the college-books, and paid certain fees, while their personal attendance and application to study were entirely dispensed with. De Pombal immediately put a stop to connivances so fatal to the improvement of youth, and fixed the exact time during which a student should remain in college; and such residence, as well as a previous public examination, he made indispensably necessary for obtaining degrees. He also instituted many new regulations, founded on such as were in force in the universities of England, France, and Flanders; appointed professors in most of the sciences; and established two new faculties, one of natural history, and the other of mathematics; at which the clergy took great offence, supposing such innovations preparatory to the introduction of heresy, and the subversion of the Catholic faith. The number of students is at present about six hundred;

hundred; among whom the quibbling divinity of St. Thomas Aquinas is now exploded, and rational learning happily introduced.

Porto, Oporto, or Porta Port, the second city of the kingdom, and the capital of the province of Entre Duoro e Minho, is situated in 46 degrees 53 minutes north latitude, and 8 degrees 35 minutes west longitude, on the side of a rugged mountain, the foot of which is washed by the River Duoro; which being only about a league distant from the sea, forms an excellent harbour; though the entrance is rendered somewhat difficult from rocks and sands, which form a bar, and require the aid of high-water, as well as that of a pilot, to get over. The harbour is protected against every wind; though, when the floods or freshes come down, no anchor can hold; and the ships are then fastened to each other along the walls, in order to avoid the irresistible impetuosity of the torrent.

The streets of Oporto, though well-paved, are, through the inequality of its site, unpleasant to walk in; the houses are not very remarkable for their elegance; and the fortifications are old and ruinous. Along the banks of the river runs a fine quay, close to which lies the shipping, so that a merchant may see his vessels unloaded from his own windows. In opulence, populousness, commerce, extent, and situation, this is the next city to Lisbon; and British inhabitants enjoy the same immunities as those in the metropolis.

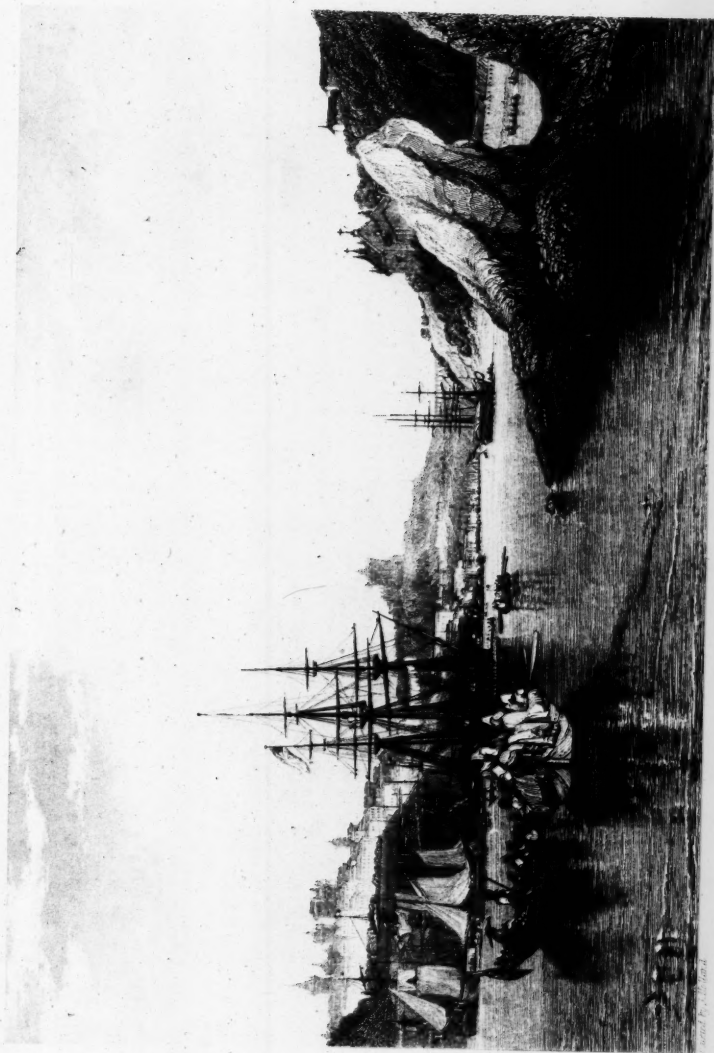
Oporto has four suburbs, seven parish-churches, twelve convents, and several hospitals and charitable institutions. The shops are filled with baize and coarse cloth; and the apparel generally worn by the inhabitants is the manufacture of Great Britain. From their great intercourse with the English, they have adopted several of our customs, and copied many of our institutions. In 1774, the number of inhabitants of this city was computed at 36,000.

Braga, an ancient archiepiscopal city of the same province, situated in 41 degrees 33 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 44 minutes west longitude, is said to have been originally built by the Greeks; but it afterwards fell under the power of the Carthaginians, Romans, Swabians, Goths, Moors, and kings of Leon. The Romans gave it the title of Augusta, and the Swabian kings honoured it with their residence. In the time of Pliny, it was a place of such importance, that it had under its jurisdiction twenty-four cities and 575,000 inhabitants. The Roman antiquities still extant, particularly an amphitheatre and an aqueduct, are sufficient proofs of its ancient splendor. Several famous councils were held in this city during the fifth and sixth centuries.

Braga, which is supposed to contain about twelve thousand inhabitants, has four parish-churches, an ancient and magnificent cathedral, eight convents, a seminary, an hospital, and a house of mercy for decayed persons of both sexes.

This country was originally possessed by the Phœnicians and Carthaginians, from whom it passed to the Romans about two hundred and fifty years before the Christian æra, and was erected into a Roman province under the Emperor Augustus. Towards the beginning of the fifth century, the Alans, and afterwards the Swabians and Visigoths, successively over-ran it, and maintained possession till they were overpowered by the Moors and Saracens in the eighth century, from whom the Christians gradually wrested the possession.

Henry



Henry Duke of Burgundy having distinguished himself by his eminent achievements against the Moors, Alphonso VI. King of Castile, gave him his daughter Therefa in marriage, created him Earl of Portugal, and in 1110 left him that kingdom. Alphonso, his son and successor, having obtained a signal victory over the Moors in 1136, was created king by the people; and, disclaiming all allegiance to Spain, the succession of the crown was settled, in 1181, at a convention of the states of the realm. In 1383, the legitimate male line of this family becoming extinct in the person of Ferdinand, John I. his natural son, after a struggle of two years, was suffered to mount the throne; and in his reign the spirit of discovery and adventure began to shew itself, the Portuguese establishing several settlements in Africa, and adding to the terraqueous globe the Azores, which since the time of the Carthaginians had been totally unknown. His great grandson, John II. increased the population of his kingdom by the admission of the Jews, who had been entirely expelled from Spain; and gave great encouragement to navigation, which facilitated the discovery of a way to the East Indies, by doubling the Cape of Good Hope, under the reign of his successor Emanuel.

Brazil was first discovered in 1500 by Don Pedro Alvarez; and so many new establishments were made in the Indies, that the Portuguese may be said, at that time, to have gained the summit of power: but the wars they were obliged to wage with the natives of Indostan and Africa, and their frequent emigrations, proved fatal to their own country; and Henry the Cardinal dying in 1580, the male line of the royal family again became extinct, and in the year following Portugal was united to Spain.

The Portuguese, now reduced to a state of vassalage, lost almost every advantage they had formerly obtained under their own monarchs: their possessions in the East Indies, in Brazil, and on the coast of Africa, were either neglected, or wrested from them by the Dutch and other maritime powers; while they were oppressed at home by unfeeling governors; and at last compelled to assert their liberty, by throwing off the Spanish yoke in 1640, and elevating John Duke of Braganza to the throne.

This prince, who assumed the title of John IV. drove the Dutch out of Brazil, and proved the progenitor of the present royal family. Alphonso his son was dethroned by his own brother Peter, who likewise obtained a dispensation from the Pope to marry Alphonso's queen; which unnatural union was actually consummated. Peter, through the mediation of Charles II. of Great Britain, who had married the Infanta Catharine, sister to Peter and Alphonso, concluded a treaty in 1668 with Spain, by which Portugal was declared an independent kingdom.

Peter was succeeded by his son John, the father of the late king of Portugal. John joined the grand confederacy formed by King William to humble the power of France, to which his father had also acceded; but neither of them were of great service to the cause: on the contrary, they had almost ruined the Allies, by occasioning the loss of the battle of Almanza in 1707. John dying in 1750, left the kingdom to his son Joseph, whose reign was neither pleasant to himself nor fortunate to his people. The melancholy earthquake in 1755 destroyed his capital, and shook the very basis of his government. His succeeding administration

tion was neither marked with internal affection nor foreign reputation ; it was deeply stained with domestic blood, and rendered odious by excessive and unrelenting cruelty.

In 1760, he was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with life, in a solitary place near the royal seat of Belem ; on which occasion several of the first families in the kingdom were ruined, tortured, and almost exterminated, in consequence of an ill-grounded accusation exhibited against them for having conspired against the life of their sovereign. But these allegations were not supported by proper evidence ; and, after they had suffered the severity of an unjust sentence, their innocence was fully and incontestibly proved. From this supposed conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the Jesuits, who were pretended to have been accessaries, from every part of the Portuguese dominions.

The favourite minister in the reign of Joseph was the Marquis de Pombal, to whom the entire management of public affairs was implicitly trusted. The grand national objects pursued by this celebrated statesman were of the utmost importance to the interests of the kingdom. He set about establishing manufactures ; and enacted, that one-third of the vineyards should be converted into corn-fields, in order to obviate the necessity of importing grain from foreign countries : he reduced the enormous wealth of the clergy ; subjected the court of inquisition to the civil power ; and procured the entire expulsion of the Jesuits, an order of men who had become peculiarly obnoxious to government. These spirited proceedings could not fail of creating many malecontents ; bigotry and superstition complained that the holy catholic church was in danger ; and the nobility, whose influence was lessened by Pombal's sole engrossment of the royal ear, joined the disaffected party, and abetted the views of ministerial opposition. But though even the most laudable reforms will always excite disaffection in a degenerate nation, such salutary measures, had they been pursued on truly patriotic principles, would have been attended with the most beneficial consequences, and might in time have baffled all opposition. The great object of this minister, however, was not so much to reform abuses, as to direct them into new channels. Manufactures, indeed, were established, but founded on his own avaricious views, under whom the acting proprietors were only agents. Having lessened the growth of vines, he subjected the wine produced to an unjust monopoly ; and, having abridged the power of the clergy, and expelled the Jesuits, he only strengthened his own government by the accession of their revenues. During these reforms, the army remained undisciplined, and the navy neglected ; and, but for the spirited support of Great Britain, Portugal would have been reduced to a state of vassalage by the arms of Spain. De Pombal, however, took the shortest method of silencing murmurs against his administration, that of unrelenting severity : the prisons were crowded with objects of his vengeance ; and the treatment those victims of his wrath received there, would have added fresh infamy even to a Dionysius : but his master dying in 1777, his power vanished at once, he was barely permitted to live, driven from the capital with disgrace, and reduced to the condition of an humble individual.

His Portuguese Majesty Joseph having no male issue, the Princess of Brazil, his eldest daughter, was married, by a dispensation from the Pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, in
order



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order to prevent the crown from devolving on a foreign family. On the demise of her father, that princess mounted the throne; and, among the first acts of her reign, removed the prime-minister of the late reign: an event which excited a general joy among her subjects, and conciliated their affections to her government.

C H A P. XIII.

SWITZERLAND.

THE thirteen united cantons of Switzerland, the Helvetia of antiquity, is bounded on the north by Swabia; by the Lake of Constance, Tirol, and Trent, on the east; by Italy on the south, and by France on the west; extending from 45 to 48 degrees of north latitude, and from 6 to 11 of east longitude; the extreme length being about two hundred and sixty miles; and breadth, at a medium, about one hundred.

Though this country enjoys a southern situation, being situated among the Alps, the highest mountains of Europe, the air is much more severe than in the higher latitudes. The frosts, in winter, are intensely sharp, and many of the hills are covered with perpetual snow. In summer, the inequality of the soil renders the same province unequal in its seasons; and it is by no means uncommon for the inhabitants of one side of a mountain to be reaping, while those on the other are sowing. The vallies, however, are warm, fertile, and highly cultivated; but being subject to floods and various accidents which frequently destroy the expected produce of the year, the natives have adopted the prudent precaution of erecting granaries, to supply the failure of their crops.

The water of Switzerland, in general, is grateful to the palate, and salubrious to the constitution; and, in many places, descending from the mountains in broken falls, has a grand and delightful effect.

With regard to the effects of persevering industry, perhaps no country on earth can vie with or even equal Switzerland. In passing over the most mountainous and naturally sterile spots, we meet with vineyards and pastures; and not unfrequently trace the plough along the side of a very steep precipice, which a horse unaccustomed to the country would be incapable of ascending without danger. Indeed, nature seems to have thrown every obstruction in the way which can result from unpropitious soil, situation, and climate; and the natives, delighted with surmounting them, seem to have spread artificial fertility over the most sterile spots, and converted the rugged rock into pleasant vineyards. The bottoms of the mountains, and sometimes their very summits, are clothed with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasturage. Other parts of this country, however, are too dreary to be improved, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, clothed with snow or ice, where the hand of industry cannot exert itself. The vallies between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes; and sometimes the most fruitful spots beneath are destroyed by the fall of vast fragments of ice, or collections of snow. In some parts of the country we meet with

with a regular gradation from extreme sterility to high cultivation; and, in others, the transition is surprizingly quick. Sometimes a continuous chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with woods, and adorned with hamlets, exhibits a delightful landscape to the eye of the traveller; while, in other places, nothing but rugged rocks, cataracts, and snowy mountains, are to be seen. In short, no country on earth abounds more in picturesque scenes; and here nature sports in her most inviting and agreeable, as well as in her most awful and tremendous forms.

The principal rivers of Switzerland are the Rhine, (a name given by the Swiss to all streams and rivers in general) which rises in the country of the Grisons; and, with respect to it's source, is divided into Anterior, Middle, and Posterior. The Rusa, which issues from the lake called Lago di Luzendro, on the mountain of St. Gotthard; and having joined two rivulets, precipitates itself down several rocks, through a deep and narrow valley; and, after an extensive progress, is discharged into the Aar: this last-mentioned river rises in the mountain of Grimel, and at last falls into the Rhine. The Rhone, which is first formed by some water issuing from two rocks of ice on the Furka Chain, and precipitating itself with a thundering noise between two rocks of an astonishing height, receives several rivulets in it's course, and runs into the Lake of Geneva; from which issuing again, it traverses the territory of that city, and enters France. The Tefin, which issues from several lakes near the mountain of St. Gotthard, and passes through the valley of Livis and the Lago Maggiore, and at length loses itself in the Po.

The most considerable lakes in Switzerland are those of Geneva, Constance, Thuné, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel, and Brien. These rivers and lakes are of the most essential advantage to this inland country; they supply the natives with various kinds of fish, and facilitate the conveyance of the articles of life and commerce.

The most common animals of Switzerland are sheep, black cattle, and horses; but those peculiar to this country are the bouquetin, and the chamois, whose activity in scouring along the craggy rocks, and in leaping over the most frightful precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are subject to pleurisy, mix a few drops of it with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is likewise reckoned delicious meat. Among the Alpine mountains also is found a species of horses, which in summer perfectly resemble other animals of the same kind in their colour, but in winter become so white, that they are scarcely distinguishable from the snow. Yellow and white foxes also abound in the Alps; and, during the severity of winter, sometimes visit the vallies.

Besides the domestic and wild-fowl common to other European countries, Switzerland contains a remarkable bird called the lammer-greyer, which delights in the highest and most inaccessible peaks, preys alike on wild and tame animals, and resembles a large eagle; it's wings, when expanded, frequently measuring fourteen feet.

The levels and vallies, from the high state of cultivation in which they are kept, produce abundance of grain, but hardly enough to answer the general demands of domestic consumption. Barley is raised on the most elevated situations, oats in a warmer soil, rye in a still warmer, and the most genial of all is assigned to spelt. The common fruits of Switzerland are

are apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chefnuts; and, towards the Italian climes, we meet with peaches, morells, almonds, figs, citrons, pomegranates, and other productions of a mild climate.

The Swiss are generally tall, strong, well-proportioned, active and laborious; distinguished for their honesty, steadiness, and bravery; and, above all, for their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. From the earliest periods of history we find them inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, and an invincible spirit for freedom, may be considered as the distinguishing characteristics of the Swiss cantons. Though few of them have pursued science to her last retreat, they may be regarded as an enlightened nation: the common people are far more intelligent than those of most other countries; a taste for literature pervades all ranks; and a genuine and agreeable good-breeding manifests itself in a particular manner among the gentry. A traveller, on his first entrance into Switzerland, cannot but remark the air of content and satisfaction which sits on every countenance; nor can he avoid being pleased with the personal and domestic cleanliness so universally prevalent in this country. In their manners, behaviour, and dress, strong outlines may be traced which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations who labour under the oppressions of despotism and tyranny: even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest images of simplicity, ease, and contentment, and strongly impress the observer with a pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some cantons, each cottage has its respective territory, consisting generally of a field or two of pasture-ground, skirted with trees, and supplied with excellent water.

In most parts of Switzerland sumptuary laws are in force, as well to preserve the greatest plainness and simplicity of manners, as to banish every thing which has the appearance of superfluity or excess. No dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions: silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are subject to regulations. The citizens at the head of their government, in all public assemblies, appear in black cloaks and bands; while the peasants are usually clothed in a coarse cloth manufactured in their own country, their holiday cloaths, which descend from father to son, being seldom worn out before the second or third generation. The apparel of the women is extremely plain, the head-dresses of those of the first quality generally consisting only of furs produced in Switzerland. Persons of different ranks, indeed, are allowed different ornaments; but those of the highest are far from being expensive, serving only as marks of distinction.

All games of hazard are prohibited under the severest penalties; and, in other games, the party who loses above six florins, (equivalent to about nine shillings sterling) incurs a considerable fine. Being subjected to these very wise and beneficial regulations, their diversions are principally of the active and warlike kind; and their leisure hours are often devoted to reading and study, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to every martial exercise, particularly running, wrestling, and shooting with the cross-bow and musquet.

The Swiss women, being entire strangers to the dissipations of other countries, are extremely

tremely healthful and prolific: hence the cantons are more populous than could well be expected, and are supposed to contain two millions of inhabitants at least. The Protestant cantons, however, are better inhabited, and more opulent, than the Popish; which is certainly owing, in a great measure, to the celibacy occasioned by the number of convents for both sexes among the latter.

Several languages are spoken in Switzerland; but the most common is the German, in which all their state and public transactions are carried on. On the borders of France and Italy the languages of both those countries are adopted; but neither of these borrowed tongues is spoken with purity or elegance.

Though the Swiss cantons form but one political confederacy, they are not all united in religious sentiments, the two prevailing persuasions being those of Calvinism and Popery: the former is professed by four cantons, five annexed places, and three governments; and the latter is established in seven cantons, three incorporated districts, twelve governments, and an equal number of protected places. In two cantons among the Grisons, five governments, and two protected places, both religions are on an equal footing; and every separate town, place, or state, has it's particular constitution, for the management of it's churches, schools, and other ecclesiastical affairs.

These differences in religious opinions formerly originated from public commotions, which appear now to have subsided. Zuing, commonly called Zuinglius, was the apostle of Protestantism in Switzerland: he was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism may be said to be the religion of the Protestant Swisses. However, this must be understood principally with respect to their mode of church-government; for, in many doctrinal points, they are far from being universally Calvinistical. But the same sentiments do not prevail on the subjects of civil liberty, and of religious toleration: in the former they are extremely liberal; but, in the latter, bigotted to excess.

The sciences are cultivated in this country with assiduity and success; and the eminent scholars it has produced are incontestible proofs of the mental abilities and genius of the people. Calvin, whose name is so well known, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, and founded a numerous sect. The ingenious, the sentimental, and the enthusiastic Rousseau, whose works are so deservedly admired by the present age, was likewise a native of Geneva. Rousseau, next to Fenelon, perhaps, did more justice to the French language than any other writer; he gave it an energy of which it was generally deemed incapable: and though he is principally known in England as a novelist, the French admire him as a poet.

Several of the Swiss have distinguished themselves in the fine arts, and particularly in painting, sculpture, and engraving.

Switzerland contains many excellent foundations for the instruction of youth, especially among the Protestant cantons; who, besides their gymnasiums and schools in various places, have academies at Zurich, Bern, Lausanne, and Geneva. The Papists have likewise several gymnasiums and a Jesuit's college at Lausanne. But, of all other literary institutions, the university of Basil, founded in 1459, is most celebrated, being adorned with a very curious physic-garden, containing the choicest exotics; and, adjoining to a valuable library, is a museum extremely well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and a variety of medals

medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Erasimus and Amberbach, belonging to this university, are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a Dead Christ, a thousand ducats are said to have been refused.

Switzerland carries on a variety of manufactures. In those parts where tobacco can be cultivated, that plant is prepared both for smoking and snuff. Vast quantities of flax and hemp are spun into thread of different fineness, for the manufacture of linen. Lace, stockings, and beautifully printed cottons, are among the established manufactures of the country; and, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, the inhabitants are now beginning to fabricate silks, velvets, and a variety of woollen stuffs. Bleaching and dyeing are performed in the most perfect taste; and leather is dressed for every requisite use. Winterthur and Lausanne are celebrated for their earthen wares, their beautiful white and painted stoves, and a very pretty kind of porcelain. Several places trade largely in toys; and, in short, this country is by no means destitute of skilful artizans and manufacturers in almost every branch of commerce.

The situation of Switzerland between Germany, France, and Italy; its navigable lakes and rivers, particularly the Rhine and the Rhone, by which it has a communication both with the German Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea; together with droves of pack-horses for the conveyance of goods over the mountains where no carriages can pass; render its trade very flourishing and extensive. Its exports are also numerous; but the luxury which infects surrounding nations being still but little known in this, the imports are few, and consequently the balance of trade is considerably in favour of the Swisses.

The constitution and government of the cantons form a very complicated study, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is absolute within its respective limits: but in Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne, with their dependencies, the aristocratical form of government is adopted; while in Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, democracy still prevails. The government of Basil seems to be a mixture of the aristocratical and democratical; and even in those which are strictly called aristocracies or democracies, there are different modifications, adapted to particular cantons. However, throughout the whole confederacy, the real interests of the people seem to be religiously attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happiness unknown in more despotic governments.

Considered as a republic, the cantons comprehend three divisions; the first Swisses, properly so called; the second, Grisons, or the States confederated with the Swiss for their mutual protection; and the third, those prefectures which, though subject to the other two by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its particular magistracy and original immunities. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises which may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, and in which, every canton having a vote, the question is decided by a majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gallen, and the cities of St. Gallen and Bien; and on these occasions one of the deputies from Zurich always presides.

Besides these general diets, there are two particular ones: the one held at Arrow, in which the concerns of the Protestant cantons are settled; and the other at Lucerne, in which the Roman Catholic cantons transact the affairs peculiar to their community. When the thirteen:

thirteen cantons depute ambassadors to a foreign court, they do not delegate one general representative, but each canton nominates it's own ambassador, to manifest it's distinct and independent state.

An ingenious writer, who was well qualified to give an account of this country, observes, that among no other people whatever content and happiness more universally prevail; for, whether their government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states, which of all others are usually the most tyrannical, are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject, however humble, is securely guarded against every species of violation or usurpation. Though no part of Europe contains, within the same extent, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; yet with such judgment was the Helvetic Union composed, and so little have the Swiss been actuated in modern times by the destructive spirit of conquest, that, since the firm and compleat establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy, and have experienced but few commotions among themselves which have not terminated both speedily and fortunately.

The sovereigns of Europe, in their addresses to the Helvetic Confederacy, make use of various appellations. The Emperor styles them, 'Most valiant, firm, and full of Dignity; our best beloved Friends the common Confederates of all the Thirteen Cantons, and other Places of Switzerland.' The French King uses the following address: 'Our very dear and great Friends and Confederates the Burgomasters, Advoyers, Landammen, and Council of the Swiss League in Upper Germany.' And the King of Great Britain styles them, 'The illustrious and most mighty Lords, the Consuls, Seneschals, Landammen, and Senators of the Confederate Swiss Cantons, our very dear Friends.'

The united cantons, in the scale of precedency, are ranked next to Venice. Their names are as follow: Zurich, Bern, Lucerne, Uri, Schweiz, Unterwald, Zug, Glaris, Basil, Freyburg, Solothurn, Schaffhausen, and Appenzel. Their dependencies are, the bailiwicks of Thurgaw, Rheinthal and Sargano, Gaster, Utznach, and Gams; the town and district of Rapperschweil; the county of Baden; the free Provinces, including the free independent towns of Bremgarten and Mellingen; the Italian bailiwicks of Bellinzona, Riviera, the Valle de Elegno, Lugano, Locarno, Val Maggia and Mendris; the abbey of St. Gall; the country of the Grisons and it's appendages; the country of Valais; the principality of Neuchatel; and, lastly, the celebrated republic of Geneva.

From the various cantons of which the Swiss Confederacy is composed, and their different forms of government, it is difficult to speak with precision on the subject of their finance. The revenues of the canton of Bern amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 150,000; and the other cantons may be estimated in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved after defraying the necessary expences of government, is deposited in a common treasury; and it is said that the Swiss are possessed of a very considerable sum in the British funds, as well as in other banks.

The revenues arise principally from the profits of the demesne lands; from a tenth of the produce

produce of all the lands in the country; from customs and duties on merchandize; from the sale of salt; and some other casual imposts.

With respect to their military establishments, the internal strength of the cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 14,400 men, raised, according to the population and abilities of each, in the following proportion.

	Men
Bern - - - - -	2,000
Zurich - - - - -	1,400
Lucerne - - - - -	1,200
Uri - - - - -	1,400
Schweitz - - - - -	600
Underwald - - - - -	400
Zug - - - - -	400
Glaria - - - - -	400
Basil - - - - -	400
Freyburg - - - - -	800
Solothurn - - - - -	600
Schaffhausen - - - - -	400
Appenzell - - - - -	600
Abbot of St. Gall - - - - -	1,000
Town of St. Gall - - - - -	200
Biel - - - - -	200
Baden - - - - -	200
Thurgaw - - - - -	600
The free bailiwicks - - - - -	300
Sargans - - - - -	300
The Rheinthal, or Rhein Vale - - - - -	200
Laurvis - - - - -	400
Luggaris - - - - -	200
Mendris - - - - -	100
Mayenthal - - - - -	100

14,400

The œconomy and wisdom with which the above force is raised and employed, are as admirable as the arrangements made by the diet for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign princes are supplied with benefit to the state, are judicious and patriotic. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, is obliged to learn the exercise of arms; to appear on the stated days for shooting at a mark; to furnish himself with proper arms, cloathing, and accoutrements; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in foreign service either as guards or marching regiments: in the latter case the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states with whom they are in alliance, or have entered into a previous agreement on that head; but no subject can be

compelled to enter into foreign service, nor even been listed, without the concurrence of the magistracy. One considerable benefit attending this custom, is, that these men, on their return home, after gaining experience abroad, improve the standing militia of their own country, and are well disciplined in case of any emergency.

Having given a general view of the country and the policy of this singular confederacy, we shall proceed to describe the principal towns, cities, and curiosities, throughout the whole.

Zurich, the capital of a canton bearing the same name, is situated in 47 degrees 54 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 32 minutes east longitude, in a very pleasant and fertile country on the outlet of the spacious lake of Zurich, and is esteemed the most elegant place in all Switzerland. It is large and well fortified, and contains five arsenals properly stored. The churches and other public structures possess a considerable share of magnificence and beauty; particularly the Town House, which would neither disgrace the purest taste in architecture, nor the most refined nation.

The principal magistrates of this city are two burgomasters, freely elected by the burghers and counsellors, who hold their government by turns, six months at a time: next to these are four stadtholders, or masters of companies; and two treasurers, who continue in office twelve years by annual rotation. Besides the above, there are several subordinate officers, who take cognizance of the most trivial offences, superintend the execution of the sumptuary laws, the reformation of manners, defamatory expressions, and acts of violence.

Zurich has all the manufactures to be met with in the most ingenious and flourishing nations; such as cloths, stuffs, linen, crapes, calimancoes, calicoes, silks, fattins, organzines, silk and cotton stockings, muslins, lawns, gold and silver thread, and galloons.

Bern (in Latin *Berna*) is situated on the River Aar; which washing it on three sides, forms a peninsula, in some places so narrow as to reduce the town to a single street, but gradually widens till it admits five parallel streets. The houses are generally built of stone, adorned with piazzas; and the streets are spacious, and well paved with flints. The whole city is divided into four quarters; namely, that of the bakers, the butchers, the smiths, and the tanners; each enjoying the privilege of chusing a knight-banneret. One of the greatest curiosities in this city is the public walk near the great church, raised on arches to a prodigious height; from which is an extensive view of the surrounding country, and particularly a range of snowy mountains lying in the country of the Grisons, at the distance of thirty leagues, though from their height and colour they appear to be much nearer. The cathedral is a masterly piece of Gothic architecture, and well endowed. An academy, furnished with eight professors and a large public library and museum, is likewise a considerable ornament to the city. The Arsenal is a very spacious edifice, in which are deposited arms sufficient for twenty thousand men, exclusive of the artillery. In this structure are shewn the effigies and armour of the count who founded the town; and also those of the celebrated Tell, who is represented, at the head of the hall, aiming at the apple on his little son's head, placed opposite to him: they are both expressed in wood, and the hands and eyes are extremely well executed. Tell appears to have been a tall, raw-boned man, with an honest plain countenance; and, according to the fashion of the times, he is dressed in a coat one
half

half of which is red, and the other half black and yellow; his breeches and stockings are of a single piece; and an arrow sticks in his coat behind his head: the boy is delineated with a smiling countenance, and appears quite unapprehensive of danger.

The burghers of Bern are divided into those who are qualified for government, and the perpetual inhabitants. The latter, consisting of such as were made freemen since the year 1635, enjoy all privileges, but are incapable of the magistracy; the former are the descendants of those who were antecedently freemen, and can alone be elevated to public employments. The Great Council, into which none are admitted under thirty years of age, consists of about three hundred persons, under whose inspection fall all matters relative to war, peace, or alliances. The Lesser Council, composed of the two prætors, who are at the head of the aristocracy, and enjoy their offices for life, together with twenty-five councilmen, sit daily, and dispatch all business, whether political, civil, or criminal, which does not properly come within the cognizance of the Great Council, or of any subordinate office.

In the centre of the city is a large seat, composed of stone, and surrounded with iron rails, on which the acting judge, and the two members of the council next in authority, always sit when sentence of death is pronounced on any criminal.

The commonalty of both sexes used formerly to wear straw hats; and the women's coats reached so near their arm-pits, that not above a hand's breadth was left for their shapes; however, those modes of dress are in general become obsolete, and a fondness for shew, pleasure, and sumptuous living, is prodigiously increased within the last sixty years.

Lausanne, the ancient *Lausodunum*, is situated in a valley about the distance of half a league from the Lake of Geneva. This city contains several stately public edifices and elegant private houses; and is populous, commodious, and agreeable. In 1634, the wall of the cathedral was opened by an earthquake, and some years after shut again by a second; but though the remaining aperture is not now above an inch in breadth, and is filled up with mortar, it was once large enough to admit a full-sized man without any difficulty. The tower of the cathedral formerly possessed no small share of beauty; but, having been twice set on fire, only one half of it now remains. The choir of this church is very fine, and the numerous pillars by which it is supported make a very handsome appearance. One of the gates has a superb portico, adorned with the statues of the Twelve Apostles, and the Virgin in the centre; and the other has also a magnificent portico adorned with small figures in relief, representing passages from history, besides several statues as large as life.

This city formerly contained eight other churches, together with two convents; but these, having been demolished since the Reformation, the church of St. Francis, a large elegant pile, is still preserved for the convenience of the inhabitants in its vicinity. On the east of the cathedral is a spacious walled terrace, commanding a beautiful prospect of the lake, and all the low country towards Geneva. Indeed, from its natural situation, and particularly from its modern improvement, this country is extremely delightful, exhibiting a rich and varied view of hills, dales, fields, meadows, vineyards, and woods.

Lausanne is governed by a greater and lesser council, at the head of which is a burgomaster. These councils have power to determine in almost every case, ecclesiastical or civil; but, nevertheless, they often give up the right of decision to the Council of Bern. Formerly a bishop's

bishop's see was established at Lausanne; but the city closing with the Reformation, and falling under the sovereignty of Bern, the bishop withdrew to Freyburg.

The most remarkable circumstance attending this city is, that it contains a particular street, in which the inhabitants enjoy the privilege of acquitting or condemning any one of their own body in affairs of life and death; and as every individual who resides in it possesses the right of voting on these occasions, houses are on that account considerably more valuable than in other quarters of the town.

The city of Lucern, the capital of a canton of the same name, stands on the banks of the Rufs, which divides it into two unequal parts, having a communication with each other by means of three covered bridges; and a wall, of no great strength or beauty, encompasses the whole. The city, however, is rich, populous, well-built, and constantly filled with the most agreeable company. The inhabitants carry on an extensive trade with Germany and Italy, and are celebrated for their politeness and affability.

The organ of the great church, an extraordinary large and beautiful piece of mechanism, and the skeleton of a giant preserved in the Town-house, are among the most singular curiosities to be seen at Lucern.

The supreme power is vested in the Greater and Lesser Councils; the former of which consists of sixty-four persons elected from among the burghers, who are vested with the penal jurisdiction, judge in the last resort, and confer the freedom of the city according to their own discretion.

Altorf, the capital of the canton of Uri, is situated on the Lake of Lucern, near the mouth of the Rufs; and contains several spacious and well-paved streets, with neat, commodious houses, adorned with delightful gardens. This city contains three churches; the principal of which is that of St. Martin, a structure possessing all that elegant simplicity which best becomes a place set apart for religious worship. In 1400, Altorf was in a great measure consumed by an accidental conflagration; and again, in 1693, it experienced the same calamity.

The canton of Uri is almost every where intersected by dreadful mountains, the summits of which are perpetually covered with ice and snow: the loftiest is that of St. Gotthard, over which is a fine road carried in one continued ascent to the very summit. This road, though only about six or seven feet wide, is perfectly safe for horses and carriages; but the quantities of snow which devolve from the superior parts of the mountain have sometimes proved fatal to travellers in their progress. Nothing can display the industry of man in more striking colours than the amazing efforts which have been exerted to render this road passable; nor can any thing impress the mind of a stranger with stronger sensations of awe and terror than the hideous rocks which overhang the path, and every moment seem to threaten inevitable destruction.

The inhabitants of this canton are remarkably vigorous and brave, and have ever remained strenuous assertors of that liberty which was so dearly purchased by their heroic ancestors. They were once a free people, under the jurisdiction of the Emperor; but Albert I. aiming at their entire subjection, they threw off the imperial yoke, and formed an union with Schweitz and Underwald.

Basil,

Bafil, the capital of a canton bearing the same name, and the largest city in all Switzerland, stands in a fertile and delightful country on the banks of the Rhine, in 47 degrees 36 minutes north latitude, and in 7 degrees 36 minutes east longitude. This river, which divides the town into two unequal parts, called the Greater and the Less, is here joined by the little Rivers Birs and Birsac; and has a bridge, six hundred feet in length, thrown across it, for the purpose of uniting the two divisions of the city.

Bafil contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market-places: its situation is uneven, and the streets are in general crooked and irregular. The fortifications are pretty extensive, but by no means calculated for defence. The three principal churches are called the Minster, or ancient cathedral; St. Peter's; and St. Leonard's; to the former of which belong four other parishes, whose priests officiate in the cathedral.

The Town-house, standing on the River Birsac, is supported by very large pillars, and the great hall is beautifully painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein. Every admirer of the fine arts takes a peculiar pleasure in viewing the masterly productions of this great painter exhibited at this place. Holbein was a native of Bafil; and though he attained to excellence in his art without any instructor, there is a peculiar taste in all his compositions. His Dance of Death, painted on a covered wall near the French church, in which a long train of persons is represented holding one another by the hand, while Death leads the dance, is one of the most original ideas ever displayed on canvas.

Bafil is honoured with an university, founded in 1459, adorned with a choice collection of books; and a valuable museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities; particularly medals and paintings, among the latter of which are many original pieces of Holbein.

The supreme power is vested in the Great Council, composed of two hundred and sixteen persons; at the head of whom are two burgomasters, and two wardens of trades. Inferior councils and colleges are appointed for the superintendence of different civil, political, and commercial objects. All military affairs are under the inspection of two principal commissaries at war, an inferior commissary, a town-lieutenant, and town-major, assisted by the captains of the guards belonging to the two divisions of the town and the suburbs.

Bafil carries on an extensive trade in ribbands, and several other manufactures. Its police is under the most excellent regulations, the principal offices being bestowed by lot upon those candidates who are best qualified to fill them; however, the same person is seldom permitted to hold a lucrative employment above five years. No person, of whatever rank, is allowed to wear gold or silver lace under the penalty of three guilders for each offence; and all unmarried women are prohibited wearing silks on every occasion. The counsellors, ministers, and professors, affect the utmost solemnity; but their stiff ruffs, high-crowned hats, and long beards, give them a very singular appearance to strangers.

At a small distance from this city stands a lazaret-house, with a church, on the spot where sixteen hundred Swiss kept up an obstinate engagement for ten hours with thirty thousand French under the command of the Dauphin, in 1444. Of the former, only sixteen persons survived this bloody conflict; and, of the latter, no less than six thousand men lay dead on the field of battle.

Freyburg, the capital of a canton, is situated on the River Sane, in a deep valley, among lofty and irregular rocks, some of which are extremely difficult of ascent. The town is on all sides surrounded with a wall and towers; though on the north, south; and east, the rocks, without any assistance from art, seem to afford an impregnable defence.

Freyburg is divided into four parts, in each of which are some stately public structures, convents, and hospitals. The government is aristocratical, being vested in the Patricii, or certain privileged families, to the number of seventy-one, who compose the Greater and Lesser Council; but, before they can assume a share in the government, they are obliged to procure their freedom from one of the thirteen companies belonging to the city.

At the distance of two leagues from Freyburg is an hermitage, esteemed a very singular curiosity. It is situated in the most agreeable solitude imaginable, among woods and rocks, which at first sight lead the mind to serious contemplation. In this romantic retreat a hermit is said to have lived twenty-five years; who, with his own hands, had formed in the rock a very neat chapel, sacristy, chamber, parlour, refectory, kitchen, cellar, and other necessary offices; and, notwithstanding the rooms lie very deep, a chimney is carried up through the whole rock to the height of ninety feet. He likewise levelled one side of the rock; and, by laying waste earth upon it, converted it into a garden, which was so delightfully situated, that it appeared like luxury in a hermit to enjoy it. Having proceeded so far in improving his abode, he next formed two or three fountains in the bowels of the mountain, by tracing the veins from whence he observed some drops of water distilling; and thus found water sufficient, not only for domestic use, but also to refresh his garden. The excavated chapel is sixty-three feet long, thirty-six broad, and twenty-two high; the sacristy, or vestry, is twenty-two feet both ways, and fourteen in height; the steeple is seventy feet high and six broad; the saloon, or anti-chamber, between the chapel and refectory, is forty-four feet by thirty-four; the refectory, which contained his bed, and a stove, is twenty-one feet long: the hall, or parlour, is a most amazing performance, being twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet high, with four large apertures representing windows; at one end of which stood the cabinet and little library of this extraordinary man, whose name was John de Pre, and who is said to have begun this Herculean labour at thirty years of age, and to have completed it in twenty-five, with the assistance of a single servant only. The River Sane flows by the foot of the rock; and round this delightful retreat is an easy descent covered by part of a forest, in which are shady woods and pleasing avenues. The man of feeling who visits this stupendous performance, is by turns agitated with pity and admiration: while he views the contrivance and industry perceptible in every part of the design, he is lost in astonishment; and when he reflects on the fate of this wonderful man, who was drowned in the River Sane as he was carrying back some young people who came to visit him on the consecration of his chapel in 1708, he can hardly restrain the tear of humanity, nor withhold the sigh of benevolence!

Schaffhausen (in Latin *Probatopolis*) is situated on the banks of the Rhine, over which it has a handsome stone-bridge, in 47 degrees 47 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 46 minutes east longitude. The houses in general are painted externally, and are as commodious for their possessors as they are elegant in appearance: the streets are spacious and clean,
adorned

adorned with several fountains, which contain statues of warriors, patriots, and other illustrious men.

This town is well fortified with walls and towers; and on the highest ground stands a citadel, with thick walls; and lodgements under-ground, bomb-proof, sufficient to contain two thousand men.

The most celebrated churches are those of St. John and All Souls: the former of which is reputed the largest in all Switzerland; and the latter is remarkable for its elegance and beauty; and particularly for its large bell, which is thirty feet in circumference, and charged with the following inscription—*‘Vivos voco, mortuos plango, fulgura frango;’*—that is, ‘I summon the living, bewail the dead, and break lightning;’ alluding to an ancient relique of superstition, which inculcated a belief that bells were able to disperse tempests, and avert those aerial commotions supposed to be raised by the intervention of infernal spirits.

The supreme power in Schaffhausen is vested in the Greater and Lesser Councils, with several subordinate chambers, as is generally practised in this country. The burghers are computed at two thousand: and so great an attention is paid to military affairs, that the meanest inhabitant goes to church with his sword by his side; and should he appear before a magistrate without that weapon and his cloak, he incurs a severe penalty. Indeed, the custom of going to church armed is observed over great part of the district of Mount Jura: which probably originated from the frequent commotions of former times; those days of sudden invasion, when an enemy was constantly to be dreaded, and war was carried on for the sake of plunder more than for that of justice and equity.

About a quarter of a league from this city is a tremendous cataract on the Rhine, where that river precipitates itself from a rock about seventy feet high, and ninety paces in breadth. Before it reaches the cataract, its bed is intersected with rocks; and at the fall it divides itself into three streams, of which that on the south-side is the most impetuous, the violence of the fall changing the water into an infinite number of whitish particles, part of which, like a light cloud or mist, hovers in the air, and forms a variety of the most brilliant rainbows with the intercepted sun-beams.

Baden, the capital of a county dependent on the Swiss cantons, is situated on the River Limmat, in 47 degrees 35 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 15 minutes east longitude, in a valley between two very high hills, through which the river devolving its stream, divides the town into two parts. This city is protected by two castles, one of which is the residence of the bailiff, and has lately received very considerable improvements. The Council-house is a spacious structure, containing apartments for the assemblies of the cantons in general, and for the particular courts and councils of Baden, at the head of which is the bailiff. Both Papists and Calvinists have their respective places of public worship, but neither of them contain any thing worthy of notice.

Baden, however, owes its celebrity, as well as its origin, to its baths, which have been famous ever since the commencement of the Christian æra. These lie about a quarter of a mile from the town, on both sides of the Limmat; the largest are at Imrapen, a very pleasant little village, containing some handsome houses. The waters are hot in the third degree,

gree, being impregnated with a great quantity of sulphur mixed with some allum and nitre, and are conveyed from their sources, in no less than sixty canals, to the several inns and private houses of the city. The difference of seasons has never been observed to have any effect on the increase or decrease of these springs; however, they are thought to possess most virtue about the beginning of May and September, because at those times they abound with the flowers of the sulphur. The water is esteemed serviceable in several complaints, internal as well as external, and is used both for drinking and bathing. One bath is particularly celebrated for its deobstruent qualities, and removing the causes of female sterility; for which reason, we are told, that scarce any young woman of distinction marries in this country without stipulating in her marriage-articles for permission to pay an annual visit to the baths at Baden.

Chur, or Coire, (in Latin *Curia Rhætorum*) the capital of the republic of the Grisons, is situated in 46 degrees 52 minutes north latitude, and in 9 degrees 32 minutes east longitude, on the banks of the River Pleissur, which washes the walls of the city; and, by means of sluices, may be conveyed through all the streets. The city is of considerable extent, containing two churches, a *collegium philosophicum*, a grammar-school, and several public offices. Its origin is involved in obscurity; but it gradually received all the immunities and privileges of an imperial city, and from time immemorial has possessed the right of coinage. The inhabitants are Calvinists; and the supreme power is lodged in the burghers, who are divided into five companies, and by proclamation from the council meet on all deliberations relative to the state, in which every freeman of those companies is permitted to give his opinion; but when three of them are unanimous, the other two must acquiesce in their decision.

Passing over the insignificant capitals of several confederate districts, we come to Geneva; which, though of itself a celebrated republic, is allied to Switzerland. It is of small extent, including only eleven parishes, besides the city of Geneva. The country, however, is in general populous and fertile; the villages are large and handsome; and the soil is productive of corn, fruits, and wines, particularly red wine of an excellent flavour.

From the colour of its water, and the storms which are raised on it by the wind, the Lake of Geneva resembles the sea. It receives different names from the coasts it washes; and in summer seems to ebb and flow through the melting of the snow, which falls more copiously into it at noon than at other periods of the day. This lake is somewhat like a crescent, whose convex side lying towards Switzerland, is sixteen leagues long, while towards Savoy it does not exceed twelve. It is narrow at both extremities, but widens by degrees towards the middle, where it is twenty-five miles broad. In some places its depth is almost unfathomable, and therefore navigable by vessels of considerable burden. Near Villeneuve, the Rhone discharges itself into this immense collection of water with such impetuosity, that for the distance of half a league its water continues unmixed with that of the lake.

The Rhone, at its influx, forms an island, on which, together with the banks on both sides, stands the city of Geneva, which is thus divided into three unequal parts, which have a communication by four bridges; and it is situated in 46 degrees 12 minutes north latitude, and in 6 degrees 19 minutes east longitude. The greatest part of the city standing
on

on a hill, it enjoys a surprizing variety of prospects, terminated by distant hills, which in some measure protect the country from the inclemency of the weather. The south and north winds, however, have free access, and to the last of these the salubrity of the air is greatly ascribable; for as the Alps surround the city on all sides, forming a vast basin, within which is a well-watered country, there would be a constant stagnation of vapours, were they not from time to time put in motion by that friendly element. From this peculiarity of situation, the sun is observed to rise later, and set sooner at Geneva, than at other places of the same latitude; and the tops of the neighbouring mountains retain his beams upwards of half an hour after he is withdrawn from that city. These mountains also form an horizon, which contains something singularly pleasing: on one hand, a long range of hills, distinguished by the name of Mount Jura, is covered with pasturage and vineyards; and, on the other, huge precipices, composed of natural rocks, rise in a thousand antic shapes, discovering, through various clefts, high mountains of snow rising at a considerable distance behind. Towards the south, the hills have a less sensible elevation, affording the eye a vast uninterrupted prospect; but that of the lake, to the north of the town, is far the most beautiful.

The division on the right of the Rhone, called St. Gervais, from a church of that name, is inferior, both in beauty and dimensions, to the buildings on the left of that river. But successive improvements have considerably enlarged and beautified this city within these few years. The extensive and elegant fortifications have drawn thither a variety of workmen, and given birth to many judicious measures for procuring building materials at a reasonable rate; so that what might have been reasonably supposed to have encreased the expence of building, has been attended with a contrary effect. Several streets consist of the most elegant structures, and some private houses are said to have cost upwards of eighty thousand dollars. In the Lower Town, the houses are in general furnished with a kind of piazzas, which are convenient enough in a city destitute of public vehicles for passengers.

In reviewing the public structures, we must not omit St. Peter's Church, a spacious, ancient structure, in the form of a cross. In the front is the image of the Sun, to which religious worship was paid in times of Paganism, and which the city, several ages after, took for its device, with this motto, '*Post tenebras, spero lucem*:' but, when the inhabitants embraced the Reformation, the above motto was changed to '*Post tenebras, lux*;' the former intimating that, after darkness, it hoped for light; and the latter, that light was arrived. In the nave of the church, behind the pulpit, are the statues of the Twelve Apostles carved in wood; and on the other side stand twelve correspondent images of the Prophets.

The Christian and pacific disposition of the clergy may serve as a pattern to those who differ from them in doctrinal points; and, what must appear remarkable, the kings of England and of France are both nominally prayed for in all the churches of Geneva.

On the Plain Palais, without the city, is the general place of sepulture, where the body of Calvin lies interred; but the inhabitants, to evince their aversion to sectarism, will not tell, nor seem to know, in what particular spot it was deposited; and it is even said that a Lutheran ecclesiastic was buried by the side of Calvin.

Adjoining to St. Peter's is the chapel of the Maccabees, where both the Germans and

Italians perform divine worship, and the professors of philosophy deliver their lectures. Besides these, there are five other churches for divine service.

In the Town House, which is a stately free-stone edifice, situated on an eminence, is a spiral passage paved with square stones, where a person may ride or walk, under cover, from the bottom to the top; and at a small distance stands the Arsenal, in which are shewn the ladders, a charged petard, and other warlike instruments made use of by the Savoyards in their famous design of surprizing this city by night in 1602, when they were repulsed with all the ignominy their perfidious conduct merited. The University, esteemed one of the most celebrated in Europe, was founded in 1558; having twelve professors, and a very valuable library replete with curious books and manuscripts.

Without the gates are many superb seats, delightful gardens, and pleasant walks. Indeed, the salubrity of the air; the excellency of the provisions; the politeness of the inhabitants; the numbers of persons constantly passing through this place to different parts of Europe; and, above all, the variety of young foreigners of distinction who reside in this city for the purpose of perfecting themselves in the French tongue, polite literature, and other academic exercises; essentially contribute to render it a very desirable residence.

The inhabitants of Geneva carry on a great variety of manufactures; and, among other works of ingenuity, are famous for the vast perfection to which they have brought the art of watch-making: but the late commotions, which originated from the contests between the aristocratic and democratic powers, and the interference of foreign powers in consequence of the arbitrary proceedings of the former, have greatly affected the trade, liberty, and population, of this once celebrated republic.

The supreme power, from time immemorial, has been vested in the people, who consist of about fifteen hundred burghers; their chiefs being four syndics, who together with twenty-one council-men constitute the supreme court of twenty-five, of which two persons of the same family cannot be members at the same time. The syndics, who are chosen by the people out of the council of twenty-one, continue in office but a year; however, they retain their seat in the council, and are capable of being re-elected. Several subordinate courts superintend particular departments; and, for the maintenance of a good police, and the suppression of luxury, a separate chamber is instituted.

This republic has several peculiar regulations relative to matrimony: no marriage can be solemnized between people of different religious principles; and both men and women are obliged to pay a proper regard to the parity of years. A woman is enjoined to remain six months in the state of widowhood before she can alter her condition: and a man, though not expressly limited, is advised to wait a reasonable time; as the decree concludes—'both to obviate scandal, and to shew that he has felt the hand of God.'

The present inhabitants of Switzerland are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, who were first reduced under the dominion of Rome by Julius Cæsar, to which they continued subject till the dissolution of the empire in the fifth century, when the country was over-run by the Burgundians and Germans, and at last united to the German empire. However, their mountainous and uninviting situation, perhaps, formed a better security for their liber-

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ties than their forts or armies; and they were in a great measure only nominally subject to the Germans till about the year 1300, when the Emperor Albert I. treated them with the utmost rigour, refusing to confirm their ancient privileges, and setting two governors over them whose characters, for avarice and arrogance, were infamous; and whose administration becoming insupportable, the people addressed their unavailing petitions to the Emperor in person. This being deemed by the governors a sufficient sanction for redoubling their persecution, one of them, named Gresler, in the wantonness of tyranny, elevated a hat on a pole, to which he commanded the natives to pay the same respect as to himself; and William Tell, an excellent marksman, and a man of a most intrepid spirit, having been observed frequently to pass without paying the homage enjoined, was brought before Gresler, and condemned to be hanged, unless he should with an arrow cleave an apple on his son's head, at a certain distance; which Tell, though agitated by the strongest emotions of hope and fear, accordingly performed, without injuring his son in the least; and thereby saved his own life. Gresler perceiving that Tell had a spare arrow sticking in his belt, demanded the reason; and was boldly answered, that had he been so unfortunate as to kill his son, he intended to have aimed it at the tyrant's heart. Upon this, Gresler ordered Tell to be bound, and confined for life in a place situated on the Lake of Lucerne. Tell, however, having contrived to make his escape in passing over the lake, retired to the mountains; where, lying in wait for Gresler, he at length shot him as he passed along the road. The people being now roused to a sense of their condition, and an universal odium against their cruel oppressors having been excited by the resolution and success of Tell, the inhabitants of Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwald, who from time immemorial had possessed the right of being governed by their own magistrates, united in a solemn league to defend themselves to the last extremity. To this end they chose three commanders, men of approved courage and consummate abilities, who concerted a plan of surprizing and demolishing the castles in which the imperial governors resided. Having effected this resolution, these three cantons again entered into a fresh confederacy for ten years, which laid the foundation of the Helvetic freedom. The Emperor Albert, resolving to suppress these commotions by force of arms, hastened to Baden, to begin his preparations; but being murdered on his return by John of Hapsburg, the design was dropped till the House of Austria framed another pretext for falling on this hardy and invincible race. The cause of Lewis of Bavaria being warmly espoused by the Swisses, Frederic of Austria, his competitor, was so extremely irritated, that he put some districts under the ban of the empire, and procured the excommunication of the natives from the Bishop of Constance. In 1315, Leopold Duke of Austria attacked the Confederates with a powerful army, but was defeated with signal disgrace: on which occasion the originally united cantons entered into a perpetual alliance; and, by degrees, several other cantons were admitted into the common confederacy, till the whole consisted of thirteen distinct republics, and several independent states.

The firmness and intrepidity with which the Swisses conducted themselves in the recovery of their liberties, were equalled by nothing but the moderation with which they behaved to their tyrannical rulers, whom they conducted out of their territories, and contented themselves with exacting an oath from them that they would never more enter that country.

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By the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, the Helvetic Confederacy was declared a free and independent state; and, amidst all the wars which have agitated Europe at different periods since that time, the Swisses have maintained their liberty and property free from violation.

C H A P. XIV.

ITALY.

THIS country was anciently known by the names of Saturnia, Oenotria, Ausonia, and Hesperia: the first derived from Saturn; the second and third from it's primitive inhabitants; and the fourth, which signifies a Western Country, from the Greeks, because it lay to the westward of them. In succeeding times it obtained the name of Italia from Italus, a King of Sicily, as is generally supposed; or, as others will have it, from the Greek word *ιταλος*, which signifies an Ox, because the Italian oxen were formerly esteemed the most beautiful of all others.

Italy, including Sicily, lies between 37 degrees 46 minutes north latitude, and 7 and 19 degrees east longitude. It's boundaries seem fixed by nature; for, towards the east, south, and west, it is washed by the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas; and on the north it is separated from the rest of Europe by the Alps.

Happy in it's soil and climate, this country produces not only the comforts, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance; each district possessing some peculiar excellency, and affording some valued commodity: however, the choicest wines, fruits, and oil, are among the most general productions. Corn is raised in sufficient quantities to supply the demands of a domestic consumption; and, were the lands properly cultivated, considerable exportations might be made. The Italian cheeses, particularly those called Parmasans, together with native silks, constitute the principal articles of commerce. But, notwithstanding the abundance which liberal Nature pours around her, the natives in general are far from being happy in their circumstances; extensive tracts of land lying uncultivated, and the air itself being considerably affected by the nature of the soil. The Campagna di Roma, in particular, which the ancient Romans esteemed peculiarly salubrious, is now become almost pestilential, from the decrease of population, and the relaxation of industry. The air, however, in the northern parts of the country, particularly among the Alps and in their vicinity, is cold and wholesome, the ground being in many places covered with snow during the brumal season. The Apennines, a ridge of mountains which almost longitudinally divide Italy, have remarkable effects on it's climate; the countries on the south being hot, and those on the north mild and agreeable. In the kingdom of Naples, however, the sea-breezes refresh the natives, and mitigate that intenseness of heat which might be expected from it's southern exposure.

The most considerable mountains in Italy, and indeed in all Europe, are the Alps and the Apennines. The Alps, which have been already mentioned in treating of Switzerland, are





VIEW OF THE APENNINES.

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are an amazing chain of mountains, beginning at the mouth of the River Var; and, after many irregular windings, terminating near the River Arfia, in Istria. They are variously denominated, according to their situation; but their most general divisions are into the Cottian, Greek, Peninean, Rhætian, and Carnician Alps.

The Apennines take their rise near the Alps, on the maritime coast of Genoa; and, dividing Italy into almost two equal portions, reach to the Sicilian Straits, and give birth to an incredible number of rivers which fertilize this delightful country. In the neighbourhood of Naples lies the famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius.

The largest and most remarkable rivers of Italy are, the Po, which rises in Mount Veso, one of the highest ridges of the Alps, and after receiving upwards of thirty small rivers, discharges itself into the Adriatic by seven different mouths; the Adige, which has its source in the Rhætian Alps, and after passing through Lombardy falls into the Adriatic; the Arno, which flows from the Apennine mountains, and disembogues itself into the Tuscan Sea near Pisa; and the Tiber, which likewise issuing from the Apennines, passes Rome, and empties itself into the Tuscan Sea.

The principal Italian lakes are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Isco, and Garda, in the north; and the Perugia or Thrasimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the interior regions.

The Italian seas are those of the Adriatic, Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa. The bays, or harbours, are those of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Fidal, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Gaeta, Civita Vecchia, Naples, Policastro, Salerno, Rhegio, Quilace, Manfredonia, Tarento, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and Fiume. The capes are those of Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona. And the most considerable strait is that of Messina, which divides Italy from Sicily.

Mineral springs of various qualities abound in different parts of Italy; and many of the mountains produce emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Mines of iron and copper have been discovered in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these metals has been erected near Tivoli, in the kingdom of Naples. Some of the Italian islands are said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and allum; though, in general, they are much neglected; and curious crystals and coral are found on different parts of the coast. Beautiful marble of almost every species is among the chief productions of this country.

On the subject of population, authors are extremely divided in their calculations; which variations may probably arise from the partiality of every Italian to his own province. Exclusive of Sardinia and Savoy, the King of Sardinia is supposed to have about 2,700,000 subjects. In 1729, the ingenious Keyfler indeed reckoned about 2,000,000 only; but since that time a large tract of Lombardy, and part of Montferrat, have been added to that prince's dominions. Agriculture, and raising mulberry-trees for the silkworms, have likewise been greatly encouraged since the commencement of the present century, which have unquestionably tended to increase the population. Exclusive of Sicily, the dominions of the King of Naples are computed to contain 3,800,000 inhabitants; and the Papal territories 1,350,000. The republic of Venice is calculated to contain 2,600,000 people, and the state of Milan

1,060,000. However, it is certain that Italy is by no means so well peopled as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. To occasion this decrease the following causes have undoubtedly conspired: a religion which not only admits, but even enjoins celibacy, in the ecclesiastic and monastic orders; a general disregard of the marriage tie; and the uncultivated state of several extensive tracts, which were formerly celebrated for the fertility of their soil and the number of their inhabitants. But it must be considered, that the modern Italians having long enjoyed an exemption from wars, and the spirit of colonization which depopulated their country even down to the sixteenth century being entirely lost, a considerable increase must naturally be expected from these combining causes.

The Italians are in general well-proportioned, active, and comely; with such expressive countenances as have greatly assisted the ideas which some of their painters have so skilfully displayed on canvas. The ladies are peculiarly beautiful, and possess all that constitutional warmth and delicacy of feeling which give birth to the enthusiasm of love. The marriage ties, however, among the higher ranks, are said to be little regarded; and every wife has been represented to have her gallant, or *cicisbeo*, to whom she gives her company in the most unreserved manner, without considering her conduct as at all liable to censure. But this practice, which must infallibly weaken the bands of conjugal affection, is chiefly confined to Venice; and, indeed, it must be confessed that travellers have much exaggerated its frequency.

One of the best qualities of the modern Italians is their extreme sobriety, the immoderate use of strong liquors being almost universally discountenanced. Under every form of government the natives seem cheerfully to acquiesce, or they at least wisely conceal their sentiments, by observing the strictest taciturnity on political subjects. In their dispositions, they are rather vindictive, than brave; superstitious, than devout. The middling ranks are strongly attached to original habits and customs, and seem averse to every idea of improvement: subsisting principally on vegetables, their spirits are seldom subject to those depressions which grosser food often occasions; and, in general, they are perfectly happy and contented in their situations. In no country, however, is the pride of birth more perceptible; for though, perhaps, the whole of Italy contains very few descendants from the ancient Romans, the present inhabitants generally consider themselves as actual representatives of that once famous people, and affect to regard the rest of Europe with contempt.

In their dress, the Italians observe a due medium between French frippery and Spanish stiffness; and between the volatility of the one, and the affected solemnity of the other. The Neapolitans, however, usually wear black, in compliment to the Spaniards.

Several Italian nations, and especially the Venetians, have very little notion of the impropriety of many customs which are considered as criminal in other countries. To prevent unequal matches, and loathsome diseases by promiscuous amours, parents engage mistresses for their sons for a month, year, or other limited term; and concubinage, in many places, is an avowed and licensed trade. The courtezans, or *Bona Robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all their cities; and nothing contributes more to a general dissipation than the numerous effeminating amusements to which the Italians are universally addicted.

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A modern traveller gives us a very unfavourable picture of the natives, and their way of living. 'Give what scope you please,' says he, 'to your fancy, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other capital towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the nastiness of the other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a mattress of the same material; and, next to that, a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp. For a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlid. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms, or benches: an English peer and peers must lie in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was laid. One of the most indelicate customs here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid-servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; and their knives are of the same colour. In these inns, however, they make you pay largely, and send up ten times as much as you can eat. The soup like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls always killed after your arrival, boiled to rags, without any the least kind of sauce or herbage: another fowl, just killed, stewed, as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey, roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are so stringy, you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in our way. The bread, all the way, is exceedingly bad; and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of the smell. But, what is a greater evil to travellers than any of those above recited, is the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infest us by night and by day.'

It will be but candid, however, to remark, that other travellers give a more pleasing representation of Italy and its inhabitants. By some the Italians are characterized as a grateful and obliging people, extremely affable to strangers, and nice in all the punctilios of civility: at the same time, they are too retentive of the sense of injuries, especially where their own honour, or that of a wife, mistress, or sister, is concerned; and, in these cases, they scruple not to proceed to treachery, and even murder.

The nobility and gentry lavish their money on fine houses, paintings, beautiful gardens, grottos, fountains, and cascades; rather than in keeping splendid tables, and indulging in the luxuries common in other kingdoms of Europe.

One of the most remarkable peculiarities of the Italians is, that they account the commencement of their day from sun-set, and their clocks always strike twenty-four hours from one sun-setting to another. According to this method of computation, the hour of noon varies daily; for when the sun sets at four o'clock according to our calculation, they reckon one when we count five, and consequently their noon falls at twenty hours: in like manner, when the sun sets at eight on our dials, it is one o'clock with them when we reckon nine, and just noon at sixteen hours. But, notwithstanding this particular way of calculating time,
with

with respect to the artificial day between sun-rising and sun-setting, they use the words Yesterday and To-morrow, in conformity to the practice of the rest of Europe.

The Roman Catholic religion is universally established throughout Italy: however, the power of the Inquisition is very circumscribed; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided they behave with prudence and decency.

In describing the ecclesiastical government of the Papacy, many volumes have been employed: but it is briefly composed of the Pope, as supreme head; and seventy cardinals, who are next in dignity to his Holiness, of whom a majority are always Italians, that the papal chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the Pope being a native of that country. In elevating foreign prelates to the cardinalships, the Pope is guided according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the Cardinal-patron, usually a near relation of his Holiness, who improves the time of his master's reign by amassing all the riches in his power. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to possess the power of controuling the Pope in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have sometimes been known to prevail. The popes, when raised to that high dignity, being generally far advanced in years, seldom enjoy a long reign; and, when a new election takes place, animosities sometimes run so high, that the cardinals come to blows, and totally forget the sacred character they ought to support.

The following extract from the creed of Pope Pius IV. in 1560, before his elevation to the chair, contains the principal points of doctrine concerning which the Catholics and the Protestants differ. It begins with a declaration in the belief of one God, and other heads in which Christians are generally agreed; and then proceeds as follows.

‘ I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the same church.

‘ I do admit the Holy Scriptures in the same sense that the holy Mother Church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the Fathers.

‘ I do profess and believe that there are Seven Sacraments of the Law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, Baptism, Confirmation, Eucharist, Penance, Extreme Unction, Orders, and Marriage; and that they do confer grace; and that, of these, Baptism, Confirmation, and Orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also admit and receive the approved and received rites of the Catholic Church in her solemn administration of the abovesaid sacraments.

‘ I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the Holy Council of Trent concerning original sin and justification.

‘ I do also profess, that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice, for the quick and the dead; and that, in the most holy sacrament of the Eucharist, there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the Catholic Church calls Transubstantiation.

‘ I confess

‘ I confess that, under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

‘ I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

‘ I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us; and that their relics are to be held in veneration.

‘ I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the Blessed Virgin the Mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them.

‘ I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Christ to the Church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people.

‘ I do acknowledge the holy Catholic and Apostolical Roman Church to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I do promise and swear due obedience to the Bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

‘ I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared, by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy Synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize.’

Such are the leading articles of belief which distinguish the Romish Church from the Reformed; and on their validity, as deduced from Scripture, the most ordinary understanding may be able to determine. They seem well calculated, indeed, to impress the minds of the vulgar with awe, and to establish a temporal, rather than a spiritual power, over the minds and fortunes of men; but, tried on the touchstone of Christian revelation, the only sure guide in matters of faith, they will, without doubt, be found wanting in soundness, purity, and charity.

Italy contains thirty-eight archiepiscopal sees; but the suffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary to be depended on, the papal power being competent to create or suppress at pleasure.

The Italian language is originally derived from the Latin, with the intermixture of words from the Goths, Huns, Vandals, and other conquerors of Rome; and is now remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical compositions. Almost every separate state, however, has a different dialect; but the unwearied pains taken by the literary societies of this country may probably at last fix the Italian into a standard language. The Tuscan stile and manner of composition seem at present to be in the highest estimation.

Italy has produced the most illustrious men in every science; and formerly gave birth to those generals, orators, poets, and historians, whose actions and writings will continue to be respected while manly fortitude, polite learning, and elegant composition, are regarded as ornamental to human nature. Yet the present state of literature is by no means very considerable, though encouraged by several universities, and a multiplicity of academies and societies: however, since the revival of learning, some Italians have distinguished themselves in controversial divinity, but their celebrity is principally confined to the bigots of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural philosophy are certainly much indebted to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several others. In history, Strada bears distinguished reputation; and the cele-

brated Father Paul is no less admired for the fidelity and precision of his History of the Council of Trent. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have likewise found their respective admirers in the field of history. Machiavel is equally distinguished as an historian and politician: his comedies, also, possess a considerable share of merit, and breathe a liberality of sentiment uncommon to the age in which they were written. In purity of style, Boccace has been most esteemed among profane writers; and though he paints life and manners in the most natural manner, he has been justly taxed with a licentious luxuriance of fancy. Petrarch, who was equally eminent in Latin and Italian poetry, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of literature; but Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, have obtained superior fame. The comic muse has been successfully courted by a variety of names; but Metastasio, who suited his dramatic compositions to the softness of Italian music, has acquired the most extensive reputation. Sannararius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and several others, have distinguished themselves in Latin poetry; in which some of them are little inferior in elegance, correctness, and fire, to the classics themselves.

The excellence of the Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, is unrivalled. Raphael, from the brilliancy of his own ideas, corrected by the pure models of antiquity, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and his works still stand at the summit of his profession; Michael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own person a perfect knowledge of painting, sculpture, and architecture; Titian, for the vivid beauty of his colouring, which even time seems incapable of defacing, has never yet been equalled; Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Paul Veronese, and others, in their respective styles of painting, can never be sufficiently admired. Bramante, Bernini, and many other natives of this country, carried architecture to an amazing height; and Corelli stands almost at the head of musical composition and execution. At present, however, genius of every kind seems on the decline; and, if we except music, the fine arts in Italy are now neither prosecuted with assiduity nor success.

The Italian universities are those of Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Naples, Pisa, Salerno, and Perugia.

As Italy contains all that is great or beautiful in ancient or modern times, a full description of its curiosities, natural and artificial, would alone be sufficient to fill a library; we must therefore content ourselves with briefly noticing some of the most remarkable antiquities and natural appearances which claim the attention of every traveller, reserving our account of the antiquities of Rome till we come to mention that city.

Throughout every state of Italy the most superb remains of beautiful architecture may be traced; which indicate the grandeur of the ancient Romans, and their genius in the fine arts. The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are still in many places entire, and afford the most convincing proof of the durability of the materials of which they were composed. Magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and triumphal arches, present themselves every where to the inspection of the curious traveller; and, with the stupendous subterranean Cloacæ, and Catacombs, (or repositories for the dead) in the vicinities of Naples and Rome, furnish noble monuments of the extreme skill, and persevering industry, of the ancient inhabitants of this country.

But

But so indifferent are the modern Italians in general about objects of antiquity, that the ancient city of Pæstum, or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, was accidentally discovered by a painter's apprentice, within the last fifty years. Inexhaustible mines of curiosities, however, are daily appearing among the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Mount Vesuvius, which was nearly destroyed by an earthquake during the reign of Nero; and, in the first year of that of Titus, totally overwhelmed by a stream of lava from the neighbouring volcano; which, in it's progress, filled up the streets, and overtopped the houses in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet, and in others an hundred and ten. This lava being composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified substances, has acquired a consistency which now renders it extremely difficult to be removed, the whole being formed into a close and heavy mass. Some traces of this ill-fated city were first discovered in 1713, and many antiquities dug up; but the search was afterwards discontinued till 1736, when his present Neapolitan Majesty having employed a number of labourers to dig the ground perpendicularly eighty feet deep, not only the city itself appeared, but also the bed of the river which formerly watered it. The Temple of Jupiter, together with the Theatre, were then disclosed to view; in the former of which was found a statue of gold, and the inscription which decorated the principal entrance still perfect; and, in the latter, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with gilt horses of the same metal, were discovered, supposed to have been originally placed over the chief door. Among the ruins which every where presented themselves, were a vast number of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and utensils of every kind; nor is the search yet discontinued. From what is already cleared, the streets seem to have been perfectly straight and regular; and the houses well built, and tolerably uniform. Some of the rooms are floored with marble, others with mosaic work, and the meaner sort with bricks three feet long and six inches thick. From several circumstances, we are led to believe, that the town was not instantaneously filled with the lava, but that the inhabitants in general had time to remove themselves and their most valuable effects; for, where the excavations have been made, few human skeletons have been discovered, and no very considerable quantity of gold, silver, or precious stones.

Pompeia, which was involved in the same destruction with Herculaneum, was not discovered till forty years after the latter. One street, and a few detached buildings, of this town, have already been cleared; and the street is well paved with the same materials of which the ancient roads were formed, having narrow causeways raised a foot and a half high for the safety and convenience of foot-passengers. A late traveller observes, that this street, which is conjectured to have been principally inhabited by shopkeepers, is not so broad as the narrowest part of the Strand, in London; and that the traces of carriage-wheels are still distinctly to be seen on the pavement. The houses themselves are small, but afford an idea of neatness and convenience; the stucco on the walls being smooth and beautiful, and almost as hard as marble. Some of the rooms, however, are ornamented with paintings, mostly single figures, representing different animals; and, on being sprinkled with water, the execution appears to have been tolerable, and the colours are remarkably fine. The houses in general are constructed on a similar plan, having each one small room from the passage,

supposed

Herculaneum

supposed to have been the shop, with a window projecting to the street, apparently contrived for the purpose of displaying goods to the best advantage.

In one part of the ancient town of Pompeia is a rectangular building, with a colonade towards the court, having the appearance of a barrack and guard-room: the pillars are of brick, covered with shining stucco, elegantly fluted; and the caricatures still visible on the walls (which are such as might be expected when soldiers were the designers, and swords the graving-tools) represent gladiators engaged with each other, or with wild beasts; the Circensian Games; and some antic figures, probably designed by some of the soldiers in ridicule of their companions, or perhaps of their officers: and there are also many names inscribed on every accessible part of the wall.

At a considerable distance from the last-mentioned structure stands a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which are formed of brick stuccoed like those of the guard-room; but there is little magnificence in the appearance of this edifice. Some valuable paintings, however, were discovered in it, which have been removed to Portici.

The same observation, respecting the rapidity of the inundation from the lava, which was made in mentioning Herculaneum, may be applied to this city; very few skeletons having been discovered in the streets, though several were found in the houses of Pompeia.

Among the natural curiosities of Italy, the famous volcano of Vesuvius, which stands at the distance of five Italian miles from Naples, first demands our attention. Towards the sea, the declivity of Mount Vesuvius is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees; which fertility is continued to the very bottom. The surrounding plain affords an enchanting prospect, and the air is peculiarly serene and salubrious: the south and west sides of the mountain, however, exhibit very different views, being covered, like the apex, with cinders and burnt stones.

Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the surface of the sea, and is visible at a very considerable distance. In 1694, there was a prodigious eruption, which lasted near a month, when igneous matter was thrown out with such extraordinary violence, that some of it fell at the distance of thirty miles; and a vast quantity of melted minerals, intermixed with calcined earth and stones, poured down with the impetuosity of a torrent, carrying every thing before it for the space of three miles. Another eruption happened in 1707, when such amazing quantities of ashes and cinders were ejected from the crater, that Naples experienced a noon-day darkness. In 1767, there was another violent eruption, reckoned the twenty-seventh after that which destroyed Herculaneum, when the ashes showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets had recourse to umbrellas, to shelter themselves against their violence. The tops of the houses, the balconies, and streets, were covered with dust; and even ships, at the distance of twenty leagues from Naples, to the utter astonishment of the sailors, received a considerable part of this extraordinary shower. An eruption happened also in 1766; and another, still later, in 1779, which has been minutely described by Sir William Hamilton. A modern traveller has justly remarked, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror; yet, as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some beneficial effects, even this raging volcano,

by

by it's sulphureous and nitrous manure, as well as the heat of it's subterraneous fires, considerably contributes to the fertility of the surrounding country, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage that flourish on those spots which are untouched by the lava.

The Glaceries of Savoy may likewise be considered as some of the natural curiosities of Italy. These, which are five in number, extend almost to the plain of the Vale of Chamouny, being separated from each other by wild forests, corn-fields, and meadows; so that immense tracks of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed one another in the most singular and pleasing vicissitudes. All these several vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, unite together at the foot of Mount Blanc, the highest mountain of Europe; and which, according to the calculations of Mr. De Luc, rises 2391 $\frac{1}{2}$ French toises, or 15,303 English feet, above the level of the sea.

Some of the Italian lakes are also extremely singular; and the valley called Saltafara, lying between the Lakes Agnano and Puzzeli, is remarkable for the immense quantities of sulphur continually forced out of the cliffs by subterraneous fires. The Grotto del Cani is famous for it's poisonous steams, said to be capable of killing dogs confined within it's atmosphere.

The manufactures of Italy are various; and it's trade in general may be pronounced to be in a very flourishing condition. It exports a great variety of the choicest wines and fruits; but silks, of all other productions, are the most beneficial articles of it's commerce. Very capital annual fairs are held at Alessandria, Cremona, Bergamo, Brescia, Verona, Reggio, and Placentia; to which foreigners, as well as the natives of each of the above places, resort.

Every state has it's own particular coins, as well as armorial bearings; the former of which we shall notify in the tables of coins. The Pope, as sovereign of the ecclesiastical territories, bears for his escutcheon, Gules, consisting of a long headcape, Or, surmounted with a Cross, pearly and garnished with Three Royal Crowns; together with St. Peter's Two Keys, placed in Saltier. The Tuscan arms are, Or, Five Roundles, Gules, two, two and one, and one in chief, Azure, charged with Three Fleurs-de-lis, Or. Those of Venice are, Azure, a Lion winged, Sejant, Or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, Argent. And those of Genoa are, Argent, a Cross, Gules, with a Crown closed, for the Island of Corsica; and, for supporters, Two Griffins, Or.

With respect to the divisions of Italy, ancient and modern, it was originally formed into a multitude of small states; and, after the Gauls had settled in the western, and several colonies of Greeks in the eastern provinces, it was divided into three grand districts, called Gallia Cisalpina, Italia Propria, and Magna Græcia. But the Romans having subdued all Italy, Augustus divided it into eleven provinces; however, his authority dying with him, the old divisions were again revived, and continued till the invasions of the Goths and Herulians, in the fifth century. The Grecian, or eastern emperors, at length drove out the Ostrogoths, and made themselves masters of this country; but the Lombards having possessed themselves of the superior parts, at last reduced what belonged to the eastern emperors under the name of the Exarchate; which was also, on the other hand, abolished by the Saracens, who had seized upon Sicily and Naples. The Pope being thus reduced to the last extremity, had recourse to the Franks; and Charlemagne their king having subdued Lombardy, was proclaimed Emperor of Rome in the year 800: however, the authority of these new emperors

in Italy was of short duration, the popes insensibly curtailing their dominions; when, on the extinction of the Swabian line, Italy was again parcelled out into a great number of separate states.

The more modern divisions of this country are into Upper, Middle, and Lower Italy; Upper Italy containing the greatest part of Gallia Cisalpina and Lombardy, which consists of seven large duchies, ten principalities, and three republics; Middle Italy, forming a part of Gallia Cisalpina and Ancient Italy, includes the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, the Ecclesiastical State, and some other small principalities; and Lower Italy, being composed of part of the ancient Italia Propria and Magna Græcia, forms the present kingdom of Naples.

The Italian States, dissimilar to those of Holland and Switzerland, have distinct forms of government, trade, and interests. They are not cemented by any political confederacy, to which every member is accountable; hence it will be necessary to take a separate view of each, after subjoining a general geographical Table of the Italian dominions, insular as well as continental.

COUNTRIES NAMES.	SUBJECT TO	CHIEF CITIES.
Piedmont,	The King of Sardinia.	Turin.
Savoy,		Chambery.
Montferrat,		Casal.
Alessandrine,		Alessandria.
Oneglia,		Oneglia.
Sardinia, island,	The King of Naples.	Cagliari.
Naples,		Naples.
Sicily, island,		Palermo.
Milan,	The Emperor.	Milan.
Mantua,		Mantua.
Mirandola,		Mirandola.
Ecclesiastical State,	The Pope.	Rome.
Tuscany,	Their respective Princes.	Florence.
Massa,		Massa.
Parma,		Parma.
Modena,		Modena.
Piombino,		Piombino.
Monaco,		Monaco.
Lucca,	Their own Magistrates.	Lucca.
St. Marino,		St. Marino.
Genoa,		Genoa.
Corfica, island,	The King of France.	Bastia.
Venice,	The Republic of Venice.	Venice.
Istria,		Capo d'Istria.
Dalmatia,		Zara.
Dalmatian Isles,		
Cephalonia,	Islands. The Venetians.	Cephalonia.
Corfu,		Corfu.
Zant,		Zant.
St. Maura,		St. Maura.
Ithaca,		

The

The duchy of Savoy is bounded on the west by France; on the south by France and Piedmont; on the east by Piedmont, the Milanese, and Switzerland; and on the north by the Lake of Geneva; its greatest length being eighty-eight English miles, and its breadth seventy-six.

Savoy presents few incentives to luxury and effeminacy, being in a great measure covered with lofty barren mountains and stupendous rocks; the vallies, however, are not wanting in fertility, producing excellent pasturage, and a considerable quantity of grain. The Savoyards are wretchedly poor; and a traveller meets few people on the public roads who do not recommend themselves to his charity. Among both sexes, a considerable number are deformed and lame; and the women in particular have wens reaching from ear to ear.

The Duke of Savoy, who is also King of Sardinia, is a very powerful prince; and is stiled the Janus of Italy, because his country forms a barrier against France. His prerogative, both with respect to civil and ecclesiastical affairs, is unlimited; for though superstition has been carried to as great a height in this country as any in Europe, the papal power in it is now reduced to a very low ebb.

His Sardinian majesty's capital is Turin, which lies in the principality of Piedmont, in 44 degrees 56 minutes north latitude, and in 7 degrees 16 minutes east longitude, at the confluence of the Po and Doria, in a very pleasant country, enjoying a most delightful prospect. This city is of considerable extent, the circuit of the ramparts being four miles and a half; and the fortifications are immensely strong. The houses are principally built of brick, covered with plaister of Paris, which makes a very handsome appearance; and the streets are kept extremely clean by a very ingenious contrivance of distributing water at pleasure through every quarter of the city.

The royal palace is a most splendid structure, furnished with every princely decoration; nor are the churches, and several other public edifices, inferior to those of almost any other European capital. The whole city is under the most excellent regulations; and the best police is observed on every occasion, the king condescending to inform himself of every particular relative to its state, as well as that of its inhabitants.

Turin, however, labours under several inconveniences: the fogs which rise from the Po during the autumn and winter render the air thick and unwholesome; and the wells, from the quantities of filth which are washed or thrown into them, in general produce only foul or muddy water.

The manner of sepulture practised in this city must be highly disgusting to every person who possesses a just sense of decency; for a corpse, after being carried in procession to the grave, is generally thrown into it without any coffin: numbers, indeed, are at times thrust indiscriminately into one vault, in the same indecent manner; and as every parish-church is furnished with a general one for the reception of the poor, the cadaverous and noxious effluvia, notwithstanding every precaution, penetrate into the churches, and often produce fatal effects.

Chambery, the capital of Savoy, situated in a pleasant valley on the River Leise, in 45 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 5 degrees 45 minutes east longitude, is a city of some

some eminence, and contains many stately edifices; being the seat of the high court of parliament of Savoy, and the residence of many of the nobility. The streets are in general straight and clean, the town being washed by several branches of the Alban, and many springs which issue from one of the hills in it's vicinity. This city, however, has suffered much by the calamities of war; and in 1731 was almost entirely consumed by fire.

The King of Sardinia, in time of peace, maintains about 15,000 men; but during a war, by means of foreign subsidies, he can bring 40,000 troops into the field. Being, as before observed, perfectly absolute, he may lay what burdens he pleases upon his subjects; however, his ordinary annual income cannot amount to less than 500,000*l*. His present Sardinian Majesty owes much of his aggrandizement to Great Britain; to which power, by his situation and neighbourhood, he is considered as a natural ally; and, should the ambition of France grasp at the possession of his dominions, the balance of European power would feel a very sensible shock.

The Dutchy of Milan, a formidable Italian state belonging to the House of Austria, is bounded on the west by Savoy, Piedmont, and Montferrat; on the north, by Switzerland; on the east, by the Venetian territories, and the dutchies of Mantua, Parma, and Placentia; and, on the south, by the dependencies of Genoa; extending upwards of an hundred English miles in breadth, and about an hundred and eight in length.

Scarcely any European country is more fertile in a variety of excellent productions, being every where well watered by rivers or canals; and adorned with three large and beautiful lakes, on whose banks the choicest fruits grow in the greatest abundance. Indeed, the fertility and beauty of this desirable country are almost inconceivable; and, among the Milanese themselves, from the vicissitudes their state has undergone, (being composed of different nations) a greater latitude, both in social endearments and religious sentiments, is found, than among those of the more southern parts of Italy.

Milan, the capital of the dutchy, is situated in 45 degrees 23 minutes north latitude, and in 9 degrees 20 minutes east longitude; and, in it's circumference, occupies an extent of ten miles, though the buildings might have sufficient room in half that space: however, the number of gardens within the walls tend much to increase it's beauty and conveniency. The citadel is extremely strong, and the fortifications regular and secure.

This city is furnished with twenty-two gates; two hundred and thirty churches, of which ninety-six are parochial; ninety convents; an hundred religious fraternities; and an hundred and twenty schools. But, of all the numerous ecclesiastical structures with which Milan abounds, none is so celebrated as the cathedral dedicated to St. Maria and Thecla, being four hundred and eighty feet in length, and, both internally and externally, decorated with an infinite variety of sculptures, paintings, and gildings.

So little is purity of manners regarded in Milan, that in most of the inns a young traveller is asked if he chuses to have a *letto fornito*, or female bedfellow; and, as the host is held accountable for the fanny of the girl he recommends, this article is not often objected to by our juvenile tourists.

In the neighbourhood of this city are many beautiful seats: that of the Marquis Simonetti is particularly remarkable for it's surprizing echo; which, towards the garden, from



Terrell del.

Haber sculp.

V I E W I N M I L A N .

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two wings of the building parallel to each other, and standing at the distance of fifty-eight common paces without doors or windows, distinctly repeats the sound of a man's voice, but chiefly the last syllable, forty times, and the report of a pistol above sixty.

The dutchy of Milan brings in an annual revenue of 300,000*l.* which is supposed to maintain an army of 30,000 men.

The dutchy of Mantua is bounded on the east by that of Ferrara, and the Padovan; on the north by Bresciano and the Veronese; on the west by the Milanese; and on the south by Modena and Mirandola; extending about fifty-six English miles in length, and forty in breadth.

This country, which belongs to the Imperial House of Austria, abounds in corn, fruit, and vegetables; and produces vast quantities of flax. Throughout it's whole extent the most luxuriant scenes present themselves, and every possible inconvenience of situation is fully compensated by the exuberant fertility of the soil.

Mantua, the capital, situated in 45 degrees 12 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees 34 minutes east longitude, is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe; and contains about 16,000 inhabitants.

The cathedral is a magnificent structure, adorned with paintings of the most celebrated masters, which cannot be viewed by the eye of taste without the most pleasing admiration. The building which formed the ancient ducal palace is likewise a celebrated structure; but having been pillaged by the Imperialists in 1630, it's valuable curiosities fell into the hands of the soldiers, by whom they were partly destroyed and partly dissipated.

At the distance of two Italian miles from Mantua stands the ducal menagerie, called Virgiliana, from the grotto where Virgil is said to have spent the studious hours of his youth; and near it is Pietola, the ancient Andes, the place of Virgil's nativity. The dutchy of Parma, together with the dutchies of Placentia and Gustalla, in proportion to their extent, form one of the most flourishing Italian states. To the northward and westward they terminate on the Milanese; to the southward, on the territories of Genoa; and to the eastward, on the dutchy of Milan; extending fifty-six miles in length, and fifty-four in breadth.

The soil is extremely fertile in olive-trees and chefnuts, and yields that most excellent pasturage from which the celebrated Parmesan cheese is made. This country was lately the seat of an obstinate war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans; but was at last confirmed in the possession of a prince of the House of Bourbon, son to Don Philip, the King of Spain's youngest brother. This prince is generally esteemed the most polite of any in Italy, and his revenues are said to exceed 100,000*l.* a year.

Parma, the capital of the dutchy of that name, is a large and populous city, containing nearly 50,000 inhabitants; and is situated in 44 degrees 45 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees east longitude. The site is of a circular form, about three miles in circumference; the streets are long and broad, and the houses are elegant and convenient. The ducal palace, which has a communication with the citadel, is a superb edifice; but was stript of an inestimable collection of paintings, medals, and antiquities, by Don Carlos, who carried them with him to Naples.

The cathedral is a noble edifice, adorned with a magnificent cupola, beautifully painted by Corregio, representing the Assumption of the Virgin Mary.

Parma is likewise honoured with an university, founded in 1599 by Duke Renatus I. and also an academy, instituted for the nobility, by the same patron of science, in 1601.

The principal manufactures of Parma are silk stuffs and stockings; and, indeed, silk forms the only article of it's foreign commerce. In 1734, the combined armies of the French and Sardinians fortified themselves so strongly in the vicinity of this city, that the Imperial general Count Merci lost his life in the attack, and the troops under his command were obliged to retire.

Placentia, the capital of a dutchy, is a considerable city, which deservedly obtained it's name from the pleasantness of it's situation. It stands in 45 degrees north latitude, and in 10 degrees 24 minutes east longitude; and contains several magnificent structures, particularly the cathedral, the church of the Augustines, that of St. Maria in Campagna, and that of St. Sixtus.

The dutchy of Modena is surrounded by Parma, Mantua, the Ecclesiastical State, Florence, and Lucca; extending about fifty-six miles in length, and thirty in breadth.

This country abounds in corn, fruits, and the most genial wines; and near St. Paola is an excellent alkaline earth, used as an antidote against poisons, and as a remedy in fevers, dysenteries, and hypochondriac disorders.

Modena, with the dutchy of Mirandola and the annexed principalities, is still subject to it's own duke, the head of the House of Este, from whom the Brunswick family is descended. He is absolute in his own dominions; but, being under the protection of the House of Austria, is consequently a vassal of the empire.

Modena, the capital of the whole country, and the usual residence of the duke, is a large and populous city; but the streets are narrow, and the houses, in general, destitute both of beauty and uniformity. It is situated in a spacious plain between the Rivers Panaro and Secchia, in 44 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees 27 minutes east longitude. From the great number of it's steeples and towers, it exhibits an handsome appearance at a distance; and, indeed, the cathedral and ducal palace, with some other public structures, will bear a minute inspection. In the latter is a splendid gallery of pictures by famous masters; the most admired of which is Corregio's night-piece representing the Nativity of our Saviour, in which the refulgence from the child lying in his mother's lap in a most beautiful manner illuminates the whole piece.

Venice, one of the most celebrated republics in the world, both on account of it's constitution and former power, is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. It's Italian dominions are bounded on the north by Trent, Tyrol, and the country of the Grisons; on the east, by Carniola and the Venetian Gulph; on the south, by the above gulph, Romania, and Mantua; and, on the west, by Milan; extending about an hundred and eighty miles in length, and nearly an hundred in breadth. It is a delightful champaign country, producing the richest fruits, corn, wine, oil, silk, rich pasturage, and all sorts of cattle.

With respect to the origin of this republic, it is necessary to observe that, on the invasion of Italy in the fifth century by the Huns, great numbers of people who lived near the Adriatic fled to those islands whereon the celebrated city of Venice now stands, and which, about the

the year 421, had been built upon by the Paduans for the advantage of commerce; where, having settled some small states, they were originally governed by consuls, and afterwards by tribunes, forming a kind of republic, the council of which consisted of the above magistrates. These islands gradually became inhabited by the accession of new tribes of emigrants from the distressed states of Italy during the Gothic invasions; and at last they stipulated with the Longobardi for unmolested possession of what their own industry alone had rendered habitable. And thus commenced the city and state of Venice.

About the close of the seventh century, the original form of government was abolished, and an unlimited power conferred on Paulucio Anafesto, who obtained the title of Doge, or Duke. Under this sovereignty the state began to extend its dominions, and to become very formidable: but, towards the middle of the fifteenth century, the Venetian power and commerce had gained its highest pitch, and began to decline; however, it has continued as a republic upwards of thirteen hundred years, amidst a variety of foreign wars and intestine commotions. Its original grandeur was principally derived from the extensive trade carried on by the natives; but, after the Portuguese discovered a way to India, their trade began insensibly to decay. Venice, however, still preserves some vestiges of its ancient splendor; but is in every respect degenerated, the taste for enterprize, glory, and the sublime in painting and architecture, having given way to all the effeminacy of music, and the mummery of their carnivals.

The Venetian nobility is divided into six classes; amounting, in the aggregate, to 2500; each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, is entitled to become a member of the Grand Council, by whom a doge is elected by ballot in a very peculiar manner, by means of gold and silver balls. He is invested with the emblems of supreme power and regal state; but his real authority is extremely circumscribed, not being permitted to stir from the city without permission from the above council.

Different councils of the nobility manage the executive part of government. The College, otherwise called the Seignior, is the supreme cabinet-council of state, and the representative of the republic, which gives audience and delivers answers to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the officers of the army. It also receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, summons the senate at pleasure, and arranges the public business for its discussion. This council often takes cognizance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing suspicious and accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking down their answers, together with the evidence against them. However, the tribunal of state inquisitors, consisting only of three members, and which proceeds in the most despotic manner, has the power of deciding without appeal on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state, those of the highest nobility, and even that of the doge himself. To these three inquisitors belong the right of employing spies, considering secret intelligence, issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions are deemed reprehensible, and afterwards sentencing them according to their pleasure. They are also entrusted with keys to every part of the ducal palace; and can, whenever they think proper, intrude on the doge's most secret retirement, open his cabinet, and examine his papers. Their office, however, only continues for a year; but they are not afterwards responsible for any
part

part of their conduct while in power. Indeed, so much jealousy, distrust, and arbitrary power, are displayed by this government, that the noblest Venetians are extremely cautious of forming any social connections with foreigners, or even of visiting one another.

The Venetian nobility of every order are dressed in black gowns, and large wigs, with caps in their hands. The ceremony of the Doge's wedding the Adriatic once a year, which is performed by dropping a ring into it from his bucentaur, or state-barge, attended by those of all his nobility, is one of the most splendid Venetian exhibitions.

The natives, though their trade is now at a very low ebb, have still some manufactures of scarlet cloth; gold and silver stuffs; and, above all, fine looking-glasses, which bring in a very considerable profit to their proprietors.

The state revenues amount to about 8,000,000 Italian ducats, equivalent to about twenty-pence sterling each; from which are defrayed the expences of the state, and also those of the army, consisting in time of peace of 16,000 men, always headed by a foreign general, and 10,000 militia. A small fleet is likewise constantly kept up for curbing the insolence of the piratical states of Barbary; and, in order to encourage merit both in a civil and military capacity, they have several orders of knighthood, the chief of which is that of the *Stola d'oro*, so called from their robes, and which is conferred only on persons of the first quality; and the military order of St. Mark, whose badge is a medal of that apostle.

In ecclesiastical concerns, the Venetians are subject to two patriarchs, chosen by the senate; but neither of them have very extensive powers, though the authority of one of them extends over all the provinces. Persons of every religion, Protestants excepted, are tolerated in Venice.

The Venetians, who are a lively and ingenious people, are extravagantly fond of public amusements, and possess an uncommon relish for humour. They are tall and well-proportioned; and in the streets of Venice many of those fine manly countenances, the resemblances of which are transmitted to us by the pencils of Titian and other capital artists, continually present themselves. The women, who have the most expressive features, possess an easiness of address peculiar to themselves, and very pleasing to strangers. The common people are remarkably sober, affable, and gentle, in their intercourse with one another. It being customary for the Venetians to go masked, and to indulge in some other liberties, during the time of the Carnival, an idea has originated that they are therefore more licentious in their manners than the inhabitants of other parts of Italy; but, though the Carnival undoubtedly draws together an immense number of foreigners, who delight in expensive exhibitions, and voluptuous gratifications, this opinion does not seem to rest on the most solid basis.

The subjects of the Venetian republic are not oppressed; the senate having wisely foreseen that mild treatment, and moderate indulgences, are the most political schemes for preventing intestine broils, and open revolts. The Venetian territories in Italy, exclusive of some of the Adriatic islands, and the duchy of Venice, contain the Paduanese, the peninsula of Rovigo, the Veronese, the districts of Vicenza, Brescia, Bergamo, Cremasco, and Marco Trevigiana, with the country of Triuli.

Venice,

Venice, the capital, and seat of the republic of that name, is situated in 45 degrees 46 minutes north latitude, and in 13 degrees 10 minutes east longitude. Being built on a number of very small islands, it has a most brilliant appearance at a distance; and, with all its stately fabrics, seems as if floating in the surrounding ocean. Between the city and the Italian continent lies the Laguna, or marshy lake, five Italian miles in breadth; which, by the assiduous care of the republic, is prevented from becoming dry land, or from being ever so frozen over, as to bear an army; hence the city is inaccessible on that side; and, towards the sea, the approach of an enemy may likewise be rendered very difficult, as well as dangerous. The great numbers of fish, caught at the very doors of the houses, are excellent preservatives against famine. The several canals leading to the city between the sand-banks and marshy shallows are at a vast expence kept clear of the weeds and slime introduced into them by means of frequent floods; and have upwards of five hundred bridges over them, chiefly constructed of stone; the most spacious of which is the Rialto, consisting only of a single arch, whose foundation occupies about ninety feet, and rests on twelve thousand elm-piles. This bridge is every where covered with marble, and is said to have cost the republic two hundred and fifty thousand ducats.

The city of Venice, which is about six Italian miles in circumference, contains seventy parish-churches, fifty-four convents of monks, twenty-six nunneries, seventeen rich hospitals, eighteen oratories, forty religious fraternities, fifty-three squares, and one hundred and sixty-five marble and twenty-three brass statues. The buildings are of stone, but the greater part of them makes but a mean appearance; so that, in point of beauty and elegance, this city is inferior to several in Italy: however, some of the squares, palaces, and public structures, are extremely splendid, being covered with the finest marble, and adorned with every thing valuable in architecture.

From the fertility of the surrounding country, and the facility of conveyance, Venice is constantly and plentifully supplied with all kinds of provisions; the spring-water, however, is very indifferent; for which reason almost every house is furnished with a cistern, to receive the rain-water from the roof.

Round Venice lie a considerable number of small islands; some of which are adorned with handsome gardens, walks, and beautiful churches.

The republic of Genoa, formerly one of the most opulent and celebrated in Italy, is vastly degenerated, though the spirit of trade is still kept alive among its nobility and citizens. It is possessed of a long tract of land extending along the coast of a spacious gulph of the Mediterranean, anciently called Mare Ligusticum. This district is about an hundred and fifty-two miles long, but not above twenty miles broad; being bounded by the principality of Piedmont, and the duchies of Montferrat, Milan, Placentia, and Parma.

Mountains occupy a considerable extent of this country, some of which are extremely sterile. Genoa, however, produces several sorts of delicious wines; and plenty of excellent fruits, particularly lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, and almonds; besides plantations of mulberries for the subsistence of silk-worms.

The Genoese of distinction usually dress in black, in a very plain and inelegant manner, to which they are probably induced by motives of economy. Their principal manufactures

are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The common people live in a most wretched manner; and as the soil is not very fruitful in corn, they are obliged to import considerable quantities from other countries, or depend on the spontaneous produce of the earth.

The government of Genoa is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility; at the head of whom is the Doge, who is incapable of being promoted to that high dignity till he is fifty years of age; notwithstanding which, a new Doge is elected every two years, the former being incapable of holding that post till the space of seven years has intervened from his last election. The Doge gives audience to ambassadors; all civil and military orders are issued in his name; and, for the support of his rank, he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

The maritime power of this republic, which was formerly very considerable, is now dwindled to a few galleys; and, indeed, its principal safety depends on the natural jealousy of other European powers, to any of which it would undoubtedly be a valuable acquisition.

Genoa, the capital, and seat of this republic, is situated in 44 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, and in 8 degrees 41 minutes east longitude; and, from the delightfulness of its situation, as well as the elegance of its buildings, forms one of the most beautiful cities in Italy. Standing on a considerable declivity, it affords a most magnificent prospect at sea, which has obtained it the appellation of *Superba*. The streets are extremely well paved, and remarkably clean.

The harbour is spacious, though not remarkably safe: however, neither care nor expence having been omitted in forwarding its improvement and promoting its security, it is now furnished with a mole, extending seven hundred paces into the sea.

The rowers on board the galleys consist of three classes; those who, through indigence, barter their liberty for bread; criminals who are sentenced to the oar for a limited time, or for life; and Turkish or Barbary captives. These last, though they become converts to Christianity, never recover their freedom; contrary to the known practice of the Infidels, who always give liberty to such Christian slaves as embrace Mahometanism.

The Ducal Palace, an ancient stone structure, standing almost in the centre of the city, is fitted up in a very superb stile, and adorned with several beautiful paintings and curiosities. Among the former is the Discovery of America by Christopher Columbus; and, among the latter, a shield containing an hundred and twenty pistol-barrels, which a Julius Cæsar Vache is said to have constructed, in order to dispatch, at one shot, the Doge and his assembled council.

The ecclesiastical structures contain several relics, which superstition deems invaluable; and among others in the cathedral is a dish made of a single emerald, said to have been presented by the Queen of Sheba to King Solomon, and the very same out of which Christ eat the Paschal Lamb at his Last Supper.

In 1751, a new academy of painting, sculpture, and civil architecture, was instituted at Genoa, under the protection of the council. Indeed, the whole city is replete with useful and benevolent institutions; but strangers meet with very indifferent accommodations; the inns being none of the best, and the only wine to be had in them being purchased from the vaults of the republic.

The

The fair-sex of this city are generally educated in cloisters; but, no sooner are they married, than each of them is constantly attended by a kind of Platonic lover called a *cicisbeo*, who exhibits all the little arts of complaisance with the assiduity of the most impassioned admirer. Inconsistent, however, as this practice may appear with female modesty and conjugal peace, it is not confined to the Genoese, but is also common in many other parts of Italy, and even at Vienna. Indeed, both the beauty and wit of the ladies are commonly estimated by the number of humble slaves they retain after marriage. Nor is this piece of gallantry confined to the young and the amiable; even the old and decrepid, if possessed of rank and opulence, have generally interest enough to command their *cicisbei*.

The little republic of Lucca, which is only about thirty Italian miles in circumference, is bounded by the Tuscan dominions, a part only terminating on the duchy of Modena; and, for the fertility of the soil, and the mildness of its government, is perhaps unequalled in Italy. These attractions have tended to promote such a spirit of industry among the natives, that the whole territory may be compared to a well-cultivated garden, containing upwards of 120,000 inhabitants. The annual revenues amount to about 80,000*l.* and the state, which is under the protection of the Emperor, maintains a regular body of five hundred natives, with seventy Swiss guards.

The vicinity of the Grand Duchy of Tuscany keeps the natives of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for, in such a situation, an universal harmony and concord can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessing of that adored Liberty, whose image they bear on their arms, their coin, their city gates, and all their public buildings. It is also observed by British travellers, that the inhabitants of this little republic, on account of their being in possession of freedom, generally appear with an air of cheerfulness and serenity seldom discoverable in the countenances of their neighbours.

Lucca, the capital, is situated in 43 degrees 52 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees 27 minutes east longitude, in a most charming plain about fifteen or twenty miles in extent, terminating in eminences delightfully diversified with villages, seats, summer-houses, vineyards, meadows, and corn-fields. The inhabitants amount to near 40,000; among whom are a considerable number of artisans and manufacturers, who carry on an extensive trade. The cathedral is a fine Gothic structure, adorned with some capital paintings: in the vestry are eight large silver busts; with a golden crucifix of exquisite workmanship, valued at 34,000 scudi.

The republic of St. Marino may be justly deemed a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom; and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for more than thirteen centuries. It is under the protection of the Pope; and the inoffensive manners of the natives, who are not above 5000 in number, together with the small value of their territory, have preserved its original independence. The town, which is the seat of this republic, and stands on the summit of the lofty mountain forming the territory, is generally hid among the clouds; and the streets are frequently covered with snow while warm weather and sunshine gladden the surrounding country. Neither spring nor rivulet is to be seen in the whole dominion;

dominion; however, the inhabitants are well provided with large cisterns and reservoirs of rain and snow-water. The wine which grows on the sides of the mountain is extremely good; and the cellars, which generally consist of deep holes dug in the sides of the hill, render them extremely cool even in the hottest seasons.

The Grand Duchy of Tuscany is bounded by the Tuscan Sea, the Ecclesiastical State, the duchy of Modena, and the republic of Lucca; and, exclusive of some detached territories, extends about an hundred and sixteen miles in length, and eighty in breadth. The soil is abundantly fertile in corn, fruits, wine, and oil; and, from the almost infinite variety of hills, vallies, and plains, the country is extremely pleasant.

Florence, the capital of Tuscany, after having long remained in the possession of the illustrious house of Medicis, (who made their capital the cabinet of all that is rich and valuable in architecture and the arts) is now fallen under the power of a younger branch of the House of Austria.

This city, standing between two fruitful mountains, in 39 degrees 42 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees 47 minutes east longitude, is divided into two unequal parts by the Arno, over which are four beautiful bridges; and contains, on a moderate computation, 70,000 inhabitants.

Though the various beauties of this superb city have been often described, description itself falls infinitely short of what they really are. The Grand Duke's palaces are rich and magnificent beyond conception, and contain a prodigious variety of the most valuable antiquities. The celebrated Venus de Medicis, allowed by the ablest judges to be the standard of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on it's base assigns it to Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus: it is formed of fine white marble, on all sides surrounded by master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are attributed to Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Indeed, every part of the city exhibits the most curious specimens in painting, statuary, and architecture; and the inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian language, by means of their *Accademia della Crusca*, and several others which have been established among them for the most beneficial purposes.

Though the Florentines affect great pomp, many of their nobility and gentry carry on a retail trade in wine from their cellar-windows; having broken flasks affixed to them, by way of signs. The citizens likewise deal in gold and silver stuffs, with various commodities of native growth; and, since the accession of the Archduke Leopold, brother to the present emperor, a considerable reformation, both with respect to government and manufactures, has taken place in this duchy, which has proved of essential service to finance.

Pisa, a spacious city of Tuscany, standing on the Arno, in 45 degrees 37 minutes north latitude, and in 11 degrees 18 minutes east longitude, is incommoded by a damp and sickly air: the houses, however, make a tolerable appearance. The life and spirit which formerly animated this city are so far exhausted, that grass grows in several of the streets: for, since the loss of their freedom, the most wealthy inhabitants have withdrawn themselves; so that they are now supposed to amount to no more than 16,000; though, in the eleventh century, they were computed at 150,000. The University, founded in 1339, seems to partake

of

of the misfortunes of the city, though it is well endowed, and supplied with able professors nominated by the Grand Duke.

In the church-yard belonging to the cathedral, and detached from any other building, stands the famous Leaning Tower of Pisa, which is of a circular form, and ascended by three hundred and fifty-five steps to the top, being enclosed by a breast-work, and containing seven bells. It is computed to be 188 feet high, and is divided into eight partitions, or stories, each surrounded by a colonade of thirty-eight pillars of an uniform thickness in every row, but decreasing in length proportionably as they advance towards the top. A plummet let down perpendicularly from the top touches the ground at the distance of fifteen feet from the bottom. This remarkable inclination has given rise to a variety of conjectures: some pretending that it was effected by the peculiar art of the architect; and others, by some accidental concussion of the earth. However, the sinking of the foundation on the inclining side seems to be the real cause, as is evident from the pedestals of the lowest row of pillars being sunk much deeper in the earth on the side of the inclination than on the other.

Sienna, the capital of a territory included in the dominions of Tuscany, stands thirty-six miles south of Florence, on three considerable hills, which render the streets very uneven; but this inconvenience is amply compensated by the agreeableness of the prospect, and the extreme salubrity of the air. The houses are in general elegant, and the inhabitants are characterized as affable and chearful in their dispositions.

The cathedral is encrusted, both internally and externally, with marble; and the pavement is admirably inlaid with marble and precious stones, especially under the cupola, and before the great altar, where many Scripture histories are represented on those materials with all the delicacy of painting.

Sienna derives its origin, as the natives pretend, from Romulus and Remus; on which account the city-arms, which are set up in several places, and particularly on a pillar of ophir fronting the Senate-house, represent those illustrious brothers in the act of sucking a wolf.

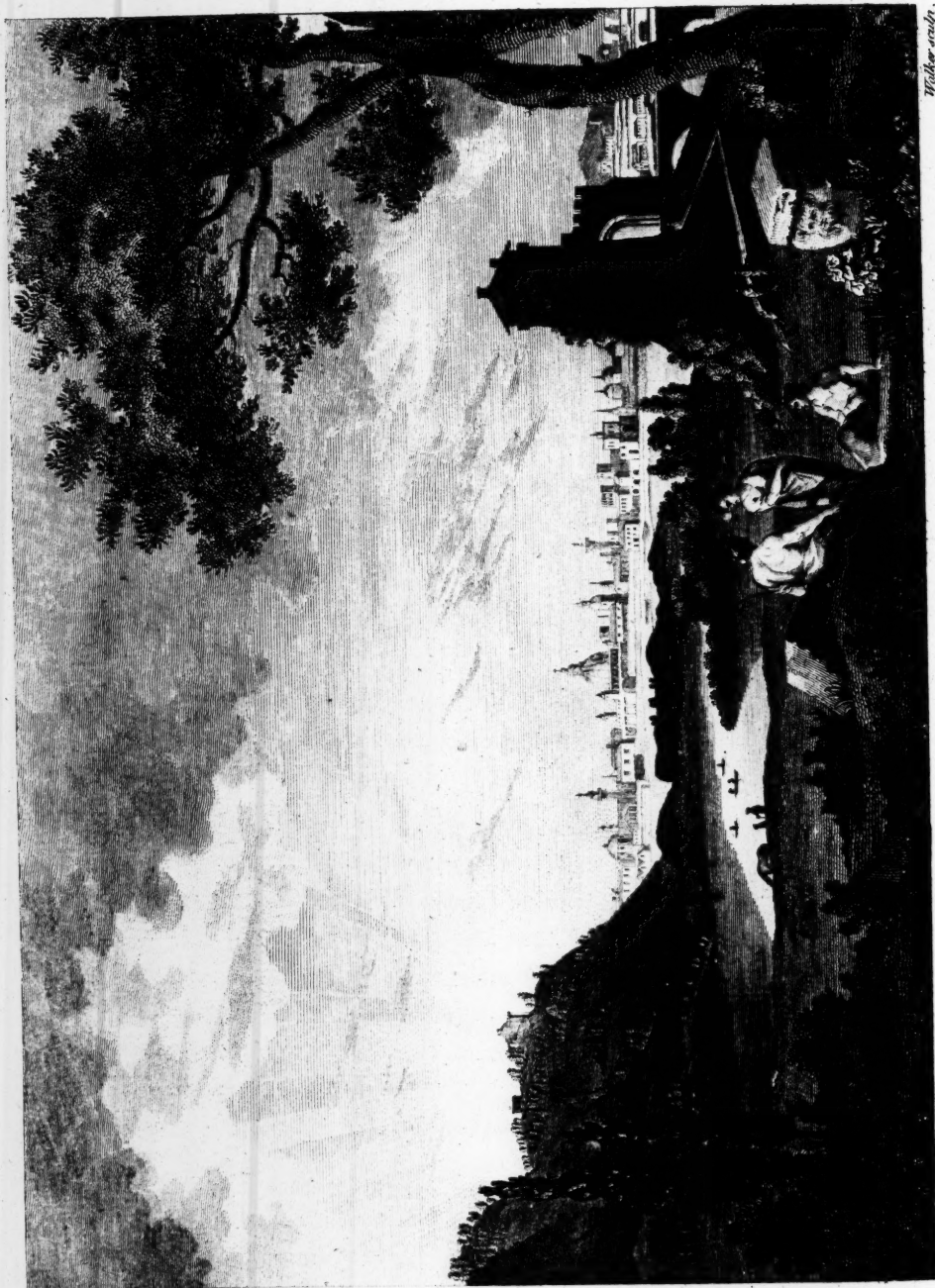
Leghorn, a celebrated city, and part of Tuscany, standing in 43 degrees 33 minutes north latitude, and in 10 degrees 25 minutes east longitude, formerly belonged to the Genoese, and was by them given to Duke Cosmo I. in exchange for the town of Sarzana. This city, which is built in the modern taste, possesses many striking beauties. Though surrounded with marshes, the canals now cut through several parts of the town have in some measure dissipated the noxious effluvia, and rendered the air far less inimical to health than formerly. The fortifications are deemed excessively strong; and from the ramparts are many beautiful prospects of villas towards the land-side, and of shipping towards the sea. The harbour is remarkable both for its beauty and utility; and on a structure near it, in which the grand dukes formerly resided, is an inscription to the following purport: 'Fly hither, ye merchants, with alacrity: this sacred place, by its beauty, commodiousness, freedom, and plenty of all the conveniences of life, allures you. Cosmo III. the sixth Grand Duke of Tuscany, who resides in this house, courteously invites you. Having enlarged and fortified the city, he rebuilt this edifice, first raised by his grandfather Frederic I. and made it more superb and magnificent in the year 1695.'

To this city those of all nations and of every persuasion have free access, and may likewise settle in it. The number of inhabitants are computed at 40,000; of whom 20,000 are said to be Jews, who live in a separate quarter, have an elegant synagogue, and (though subjected to very heavy imposts) are in a very flourishing condition, the greatest part of the commerce of the city being transacted by them, either as agents or principals.

The Ecclesiastical State, or Papal dominions, lie about the middle of Italy; being bounded on the north by the republic of Venice; on the east by the Adriatic; on the south-east and south by the kingdom of Naples; and on the west by the Grand Duchy of Tuscany and the territories of Modena: extending from north to south two hundred and forty miles; and from the south-west to the north-east, in some parts, an hundred and twenty, but in others scarcely twenty.

On visiting this country, the fatal effects of Popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, become conspicuous in a high degree. Those spots which, under the ancient Romans, the masters of the world, were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding the most magnificent villas, and embellished with all the delights which art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes, equally inauspicious to health and pleasure; and the Campagna di Roma itself, which formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords at present a miserable subsistence to less than a thousand. Notwithstanding this, the Pope is a very considerable temporal prince, and his annual revenues are estimated by some at a million sterling: but this income is not to be understood as arising entirely from his secular possessions; his accidental revenues amount to a very considerable sum, though they are much diminished by the suppression of the order of Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and the measures adopted by the Catholic powers to prevent the great ecclesiastical issues of money to Rome. Indeed, from the most authentic modern accounts, we learn, that the taxes on the provisions and lodgings of foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form the most valuable part of the accidental revenues accruing to his Holiness. Lately the houses of Austria and Bourbon have taken upon them to prescribe limits to the papal power; and as the progress of science daily tends to defeat the reign of superstition, it is probable that his Holiness will speedily find both his spiritual and temporal interest on the decline. Some of the late popes have made several ineffectual efforts for the improvement of their territories; for the principal power being vested in lazy ecclesiastics, industry and agriculture seem to experience discouragements which are inseparable from the papal government. The indolence of the higher ranks infects their inferiors, who therefore prefer beggary and imposition on strangers to industry, especially as they must hold their property by the precarious tenure of the will of their master. In short, the inhabitants of many parts of the Ecclesiastical State must perish through their sloth, did not the fertility of their soil afford them a spontaneous subsistence. However, we must do the Italians the justice to remark, that the poverty and indolence of the lower ranks do not appear to originate from natural habits, but to be forced upon them by accidental circumstances,

Nor is this observation to be confined to the papal dominions; the Italian princes affected to be esteemed the patrons of all the elegant and curious arts, and each vied with the other in



Hickes sculp.

Matta del.

VIEW OF THE CITY OF ROME.

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in making his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This idle passion disabled them from expending their money on works of public utility, and from encouraging the industry or relieving the wants of their subjects; and the mischievous effects arising from this rivalship of splendor are to be traced in almost every Italian state.

Rome, standing in 41 degrees 47 minutes north latitude, and in 3 degrees 5 minutes east longitude, was formerly considered as the capital of the world; and, for splendid edifices, antiquities, and curiosities, is still unrivalled. It derives its origin from Romulus, who laid the foundation of it about 753 years before the Christian æra: its figure and situation, however, have been often changed; and the demolition of edifices has so filled up the valleys, that the seven hills on which it was originally built are now scarcely distinguishable. Modern Rome contains within its walls, which are about ten miles in circumference, a vast number of gardens, vineyards, wastes, fields, and meadows; yet, in the beauty and magnificence of its religious structures and palaces, it far surpasses the ancient. When mistress of the world, Rome contained nothing which could be compared with St. Peter's church, the most amazing structure in the universe, built in form of a Latin cross, with such exact symmetry and proportion, that the most critical eye cannot find any thing deserving of blame: and perhaps many other churches in this city exceed the ancient temples in the beauty of their architecture, the value of their materials, utensils, and furniture; though it must be acknowledged that the ancient Pantheon appears to have been built on a very colossal and magnificent scale.

The castle of St. Angelo, the chief fortress of Rome, does not seem capable of making a long defence, if resolutely besieged; and the inhabitants, calculated at only 145,000, would find it extremely difficult to protect such an extensive circuit of walls. The Tyber, whose name is familiar to every scholar, and which has been magnified into one of the most celebrated rivers on earth, is extremely inconsiderable when compared with the Thames, being navigable only for boats, barges, and lighters.

With respect to the most famous remains of antiquity which Rome presents to the attention of every traveller, the amphitheatres claim the first regard. That which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by his son Titus, is one of the most considerable: it employed twelve thousand captive Jews for several years, and is said to have been capable of containing eighty-seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thousand standing. The architecture is perfectly light; and the proportions are so just, that the real magnitude is not at first discovered. But the Goths, and other barbarians, began its destruction, and the popes and cardinals have endeavoured to compleat it: Cardinal Farneze, in particular, stripped it of some fine remains of marble cornices, friezes, and pillars; and, with infinite pains and labour, robbed it of the greatest part of its outside casing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farneze. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimus Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though much decayed. The different baths, palaces and temples, to be seen in different quarters of this illustrious city, answer the most exalted ideas we can form of Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, at present converted into a church, and which, from its circular figure, is called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple now remaining. Several of the niches, which anciently contained

contained the statues of the heathen deities, are still left entire. The exterior part of this structure is formed of Tivoli stone, and the interior is encrusted with marble. The roof is a round dome without any pillars, the diameter of which is an hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of the dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre; where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain, covered with a stone full of holes. The colonade in front, consisting of sixteen columns of granite of the Corinthian order, thirty-seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, cannot be viewed without astonishment. The entrance is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On entering the portico, to the left, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before it is an antique basin of porphyry.

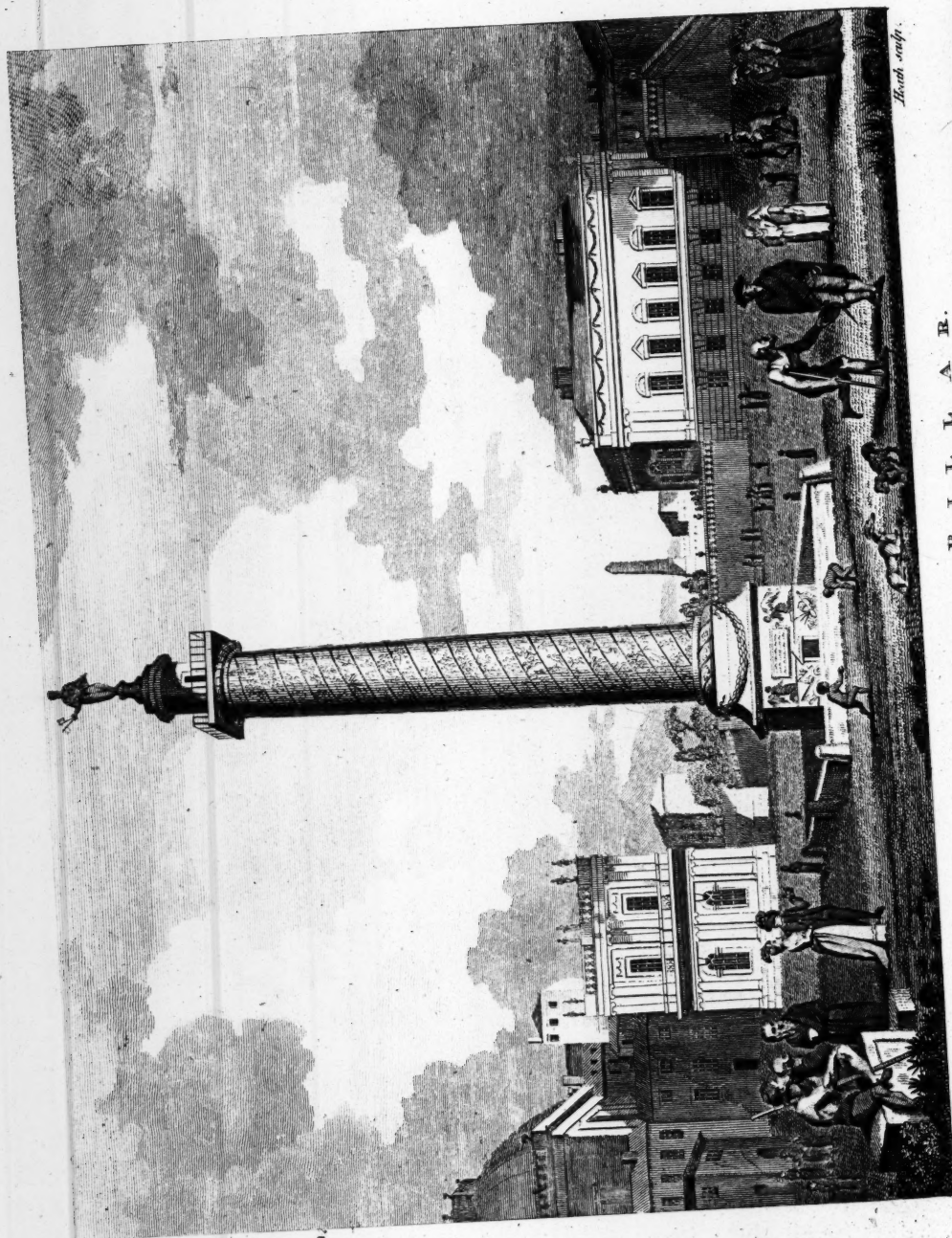
Trajan's and Antoninus's Pillars, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still pretty perfect: and when a traveller beholds the rostrated column erected by Duillius in commemoration of the first naval victory over the Carthaginians; the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning recorded by Cicero; the very identical brass plates which contained the laws of the Twelve Tables; and a thousand other antiquities which are transmitted unhurt to the present times; he forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, the ages which have elapsed since the Roman empire flourished; and fondly imagines himself surrounded with fages and heroes, attending the triumphal car, or listening to the eloquence of the Forum.

The Catacombs of the illustrious family of the Aruntii are still to be seen, with several of the inscriptions entire, near the Porta Major, in the midst of a vineyard. There is a descent of several steps into these subterraneous apartments, which are designed with great elegance, and decorated with columns of the Doric order.

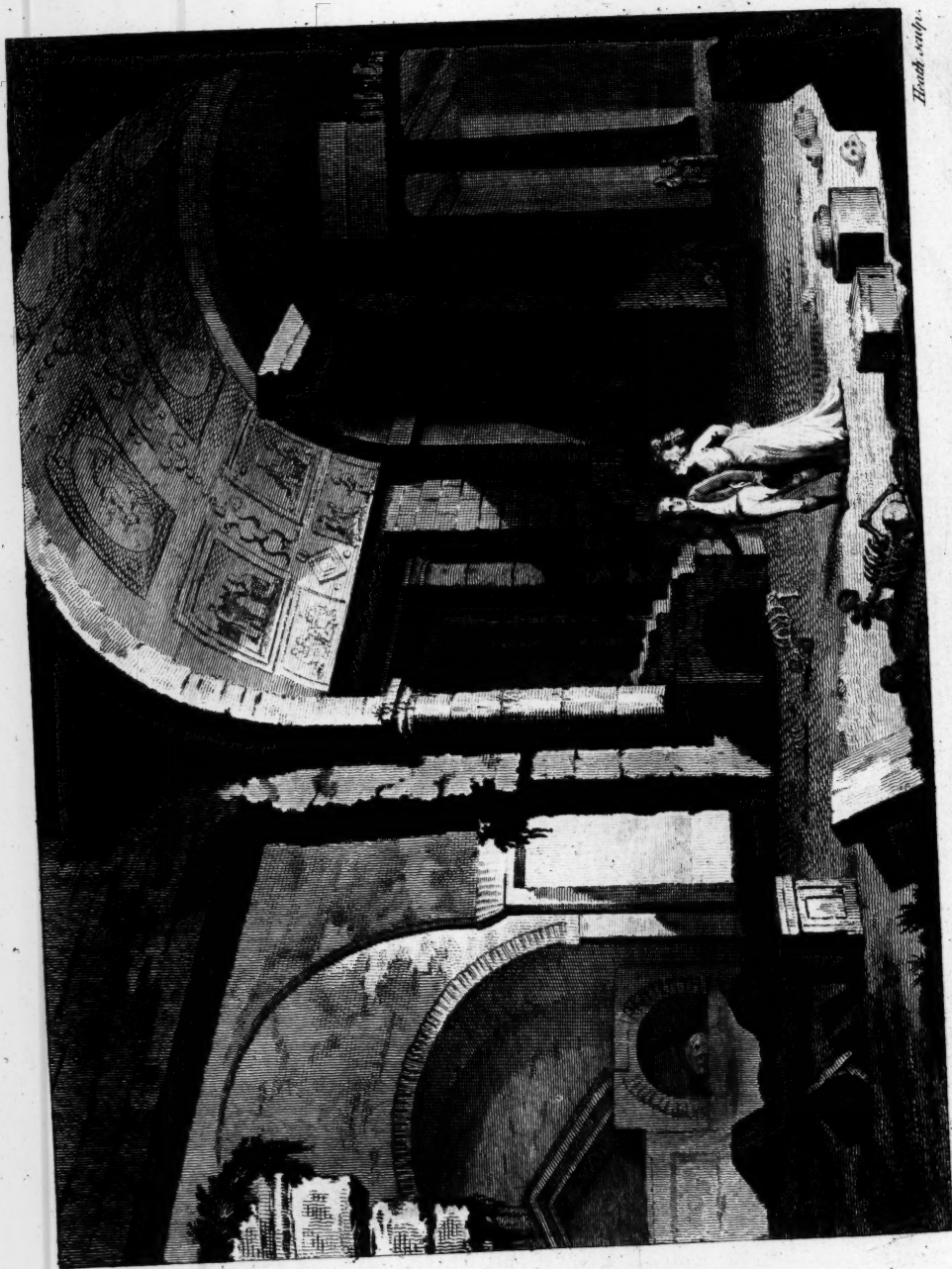
The inhabitants use every precaution to protect themselves from the immoderate heat of the sun, by building their apartments low, paving them with marble, and cooling them with fountains and water-spouts. Their beds are surrounded, at convenient distances, with curtains of gauze or tiffany, closely tacked to the floor and ceiling, to prevent their being molested with gnats. It is also customary to sleep two or three hours immediately after dinner during the most intense heats of the day; but the mortal effects of the evening air in the Campagna di Roma prevent the natives from spending that temperate season in walking, as is the practice in other warm climates.

The vintage is a time of general festivity, when the common people give themselves up to all manner of licentiousness: but the summer at Rome appears very tedious; and it is commonly said, that none but dogs, idiots, and Frenchmen, will walk the streets in the day-time during that season. However, the prodigious number of assemblies, concerts, plays, and operas, render Rome very agreeable to men of fashion and fortune.

Travellers, in visiting Rome, should be extremely circumspect both in their words and actions; though, on meeting the host and other processions, the Protestants need be under no apprehension of those brutal insults which are sometimes shewn in other countries through the bigotry of the vulgar.



T R A J A N ' S P I L L A R .



Head, sculp.

CATACOMBS of the ARUNTII, in ITALY.

Man del.



Engraved by

V I E W O F T I V O L I

M. de

Public prostitutes are licensed in Rome, on paying a small tax into the papal treasury: however, there are several regulations adopted for the purpose of reclaiming them; they are excluded from the communion; and, if they die in that profession, are denied christian sepulture.

There is nothing very remarkable in the Pope's temporal government of Rome. Like other princes, he maintains his guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, in which Rome itself stands, is under the immediate inspection of his Holiness; but in other provinces he exercises his jurisdiction by means of legates and vice-legates. The Pope monopolizes all the corn in his territories, and has always a sufficient number of troops on foot to keep the provinces in awe; but Pope Clement XIV. wisely disclaimed all intentions of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, except those of prayers and supplications, which alone seem consistent with the character of a supreme head of the Christian religion.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the Ecclesiastical State; whose inhabitants are an exception to the general character of indolence with which the Italians are usually branded. The government is under a legate à latere, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The natives of this city live in a very social and comfortable manner; and, perhaps, their distance from Rome in some measure contributes to their felicity, by removing them farther from the rapacious exactions practised on those who are more immediately under the eye of government.

The rest of the Ecclesiastical State contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of magnificence; but at present they are little better than desolate, though in different places a luxurious church and convent may be found, which either the donations of former superstition, or the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants, contribute to support.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Urbino, Rimini, Ancona, and many other states and cities illustrious in former times, is now only to be traced in their stately ruins, and in ancient history. On the other hand, Loretto, a place without a name in antiquity, standing within two thousand paces of the sea, is become the admiration of the world for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort of pilgrims and other devotees to it, from a legend industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended by many other miraculous circumstances. According to the history of this Casa Santa, or sacred house, it is pretended that, in May 1291, it was transported by angels through the air from Galilee to Tersatto, in Dalmatia; and, three years and a half afterwards, into Italy, where, on the 10th of December 1294, about midnight, it was placed in a wood belonging to Recantani, a thousand paces distant from the sea; and, after another removal, at last finally deposited in its present situation, where all imaginable care is taken to prevent any part of the materials being carried to other places, and exposed as relics, lest it should prove prejudicial to Loretto.

The Casa Santa is built of bricks of unequal sizes; and is thirty-one feet nine inches in length, thirteen feet three inches in breadth, and eighteen feet nine inches high at the sides;

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Loretto.

but, in the centre of the roof, it rises five palms higher than the sides. On the top of this structure is a tower, which superstition itself cannot deny to have been a modern work, since it would be contrary to all probability to suppose that the Virgin Mary had such a tower erected upon her mean habitation. During violent tempests of thunder and lightning, two little bells suspended in this tower are rung, from a belief that their sound will disperse them, as well as prevent any dangerous effects from their violence.

The images of the Virgin Mary and of the Divine Infant are formed of cedar, and placed in a small apartment separated from the others by a silver balustrade adorned with a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, rings, jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, with which these images are loaded; and the angels of solid gold, placed on each side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds and splendid decorations.

The number of pilgrims who annually visited this place formerly amounted to two hundred thousand; but the Reformation having given a severe blow to indulgences, the zeal for tedious pilgrimages is greatly cooled; so that Loretto is in much less repute than it was some ages ago: however, it is indebted to superstition and bigotry for an immense mass of treasure.

The kingdom of Naples is bounded on the north-east by the Ecclesiastical State, but on all other quarters by the Mediterranean and Adriatic; its greatest length being two hundred and eighty miles, and its breadth from ninety-six to an hundred and twenty miles.

This country, comprehending the ancient Samnium, Campania, Apulia, and Magna Græcia, is subject to one of the warmest climates in Italy, and is one of the most inconstant and unpropitious to valetudinarians. The fertility of the soil, however, is very extraordinary, producing an exuberance of all kinds of grain; as well as the finest fruits and culinary vegetables, which may be brought to perfection at any season of the year. The wines called *Vino Greco* and *Lachrymæ Christi* are esteemed very excellent; nor are the Neapolitan oil, rice, and flax, inferior to those of any country in the world. But, amidst the luxuriance of natural plenty, the inhabitants of the kingdom of Naples are obnoxious to many disagreeable circumstances, which in some measure overbalance the fortuitous concurrence of local advantages. Their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius is a constant source of alarms, and often of the most inevitable dangers; and the heat of the climate gives birth to a number of poisonous insects and reptiles, from which not even the houses and beds can be secured. Among these, scorpions are the most numerous and troublesome, which infest the country in a surprizing manner; nor are the swarms of lizards, which in the vernal season cover the roofs of the houses, a small inconvenience to the natives. Of all other insects, however, the Apulian tarantula is the most remarkable, whose bite is said to occasion a species of insensibility bordering on idiotism, and which can only be cured by the charms of music. The instruments used for this purpose are chiefly the guittar, hautboy, trumpet, violin, and Sicilian kettle-drum, on which almost every person is in some measure capable of performing; and, when a cure is attempted, the operation of the music is enforced by the grimaces and odd gesticulations of the musician. The infected, on their part, roused from their melancholy by the peculiar vivacity of the airs which are used on these occasions, exert

exert themselves with the utmost vigour, regulating their motions according to the music, till the venom is quite expelled, which sometimes takes up five or six days, the music being suspended at intervals, and the patient put to bed well covered, having a sudorific cordial given him to promote perspiration. On the patient's recovery, he has not the least recollection of what passed during his disorder; and if the cure be not perfectly effected, and the poison entirely expelled, the same symptoms return the succeeding year; and some are said to have laboured under this dreadful disorder for ten or twenty years. But while a regard to impartiality induces us to mention these remarkable circumstances relative to the bite of the tarantula, to which implicit faith has been given by some authors of the highest reputation, we are, however, aware, that the very existence of that animal has been disputed by others who, from situation, might have been supposed to be the most competent judges; so difficult a task is it to distinguish between truth and fiction, and to divest the most intelligent of an affectation of contradicting every thing for which philosophy can assign no satisfactory reason.

The city of Naples, the capital of the kingdom, is situated in 41 degrees 21 minutes north latitude, and in 14 degrees 45 minutes east longitude; and, but for it's vicinity to Mount Vesuvius, would be justly deemed one of the most agreeable and delightful cities in Europe. The walls, which are principally faced with a species of hard black stone called piperno, are nine miles in circumference; but, including the suburbs, the whole extent cannot be less than twenty Italian miles.

The houses in general are five or six stories high, with flat roofs, on which are commonly placed numbers of flower-vases or fruit-trees in boxes of earth, producing a very lively and pleasing effect. Some of the streets are extremely beautiful; none in Italy being comparable to the Strada di Toledo at Naples, and still less to those elegant streets which lie open to the bay. The number of splendid structures, both public and private, would far exceed any general description. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are contained in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a considerable part of their revenue is applied to the relief of the poor, the monks daily distributing bread and soup to a certain number of mendicants before the doors of their respective convents. The number of inhabitants may be estimated at three hundred thousand at least; and as the commerce of the city occasions a constant bustle, Rome itself, when compared with Naples, may be regarded as a kind of desert.

The catacombs belonging to this city, which the vulgar imagine were the work of the primitive Christians, and served as retreats in the time of persecution, may be esteemed some of the greatest curiosities of Naples. They are hewn out of the solid rock; the galleries, or passages, are loftier than those of Rome; they are generally arched, and so wide, that six persons may walk abreast; and, in particular, there is one vault of such an amazing height, that the roof cannot be discerned without the light of flambeaux. These catacombs contain a vast number of cavities on each side of the vaults, four or five over one another, into which the dead were deposited, and then shut up with a marble slab, or tile cemented with mortar. It is now, indeed, surprizing to find such a number of niches unstopped, and gives

us an idea of extreme loathsomeness; but they were probably opened by those who were in quest of some treasure they might then be supposed to contain.

Though above two-thirds of the property in the kingdom of Naples is in the hands of the Ecclesiastics, the Protestants live here with great freedom: and though his Neapolitan Majesty presents every year to his Holiness a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in this country. The revenues of that sovereign amount to near 750,000*l.* a year; and it is extremely probable that, by the new established police of the princes of the House of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and emoluments of the clergy, his Neapolitan Majesty's annual income will considerably exceed a million sterling.

This kingdom contains a numerous but poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles; for the substantial support of which their estates are very inadequate. Among the inhabitants of the capital are about 30,000 *lazzaroni*, or dissolute persons; the greater part of whom have no dwelling-houses, but sleep every night under porticoes, piazzas, or any shelter they can find. Those of this class of men who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples, near Pausilippo, in huts, or in caverns dug out of that mountain. They perform all kinds of menial offices for a subsistence; and many of them walk about the streets ready to deliver messages, or execute any other office in their power, for a small recompence. However, as their employment is precarious, they find great difficulty in procuring the necessaries of life; and, were it not for the daily hospitality shewn them at the convents, they would be in danger of perishing with hunger. But though poverty and wretchedness prevail in a high degree among the lower people, there is a proportionable appearance of wealth among the great; and, in the brilliance of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the pomp of titles, the Neapolitan nobility are not inferior to those of any European kingdom.

It seems highly probable that Italy was originally peopled from Greece; but, passing over the ages of antiquity, we shall only give a concise account of it's modern history.

Charlemagne, who had established a kind of universal empire in Europe, dying in 814, his successors experienced the fate of those of Alexander; the extensive dominions of which he was possessed falling to pieces, and in a short time giving rise to many separate principalities. His son Louis the Debonnair succeeded to his French and German dominions; while Bernard, the grandson of Charlemagne, reigned over all Italy and the adjacent isles; but Bernard having lost his life by the cruelty of his uncle, against whom he had levied war, and Louis himself departing this life in 840, his dominions were divided among his sons Lothario, Louis, and Charles. Lothario, with the imperial title, retained Italy, Provence, and those delightful countries between the Saone and the Rhine; Louis had Germany; and France fell to the share of Charles, the youngest of the three brothers. Soon after this, Italy was involved in all the horrors of a civil war by the inordinate ambition of different contending tyrants; but at last Otho the Great re-united it to the German empire in 964. This country, however, was thrown into fresh confusion by the contests between the emperors and the popes; it was harassed by wars and internal divisions; and at length various principalities and states were erected, under different heads.

After

After an interval of some years, Savoy and Piedmont fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne; the ancestors of his present Sardinian Majesty, whose father became King of Sardinia in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718. The Milanese, the fairest portion in Italy, devolved on various masters; the Viscontes were succeeded by the Galearzos and the Sforzas: but it fell at last into the hands of the Emperor Charles V. who left it to his son Philip II. King of Spain; in the possession of which crown it remained till the French were driven out of Italy in 1706 by the Imperialists, who, in their turn, were dispossessed of it in 1743; but, by the Emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily to the present King of Spain, it reverted to the House of Austria, which now governs it by a viceroy.

The dutchy of Mantua was formerly subject to the family of Gonzaga; who adhering to the interest of France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the House of Austria, in whose possession it now remains, the last duke dying without male issue; Guastella, however, was detached from it in 1748, and annexed to the dutchy of Parma.

The first duke who exercised jurisdiction over Parma was a natural son of Pope Paul III. that dutchy having been annexed to the holy see by Pope Julius II. The descendants of the House of Farnese terminated in the late Queen Dowager of Spain; whose son, his present Catholic Majesty, obtained that dutchy; and his nephew now holds it, together with that of Placentia.

The Venetians, as heretofore observed, were formerly the most formidable European power. In 1194 they conquered Constantinople itself, and maintained possession for some time, together with no inconsiderable share of the continents of Europe and Asia. However, they were frequently brought to the verge of destruction by the confederacies which the jealousy of the other European powers prompted them to form, especially by the League of Cambray in 1509; but were as often saved by the disunion of the Confederates. The discovery of a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope gave the first blow to their greatness, as it deprived them of the Indian trade. By degrees, the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent, and, so late as the year 1715, they lost the Morea.

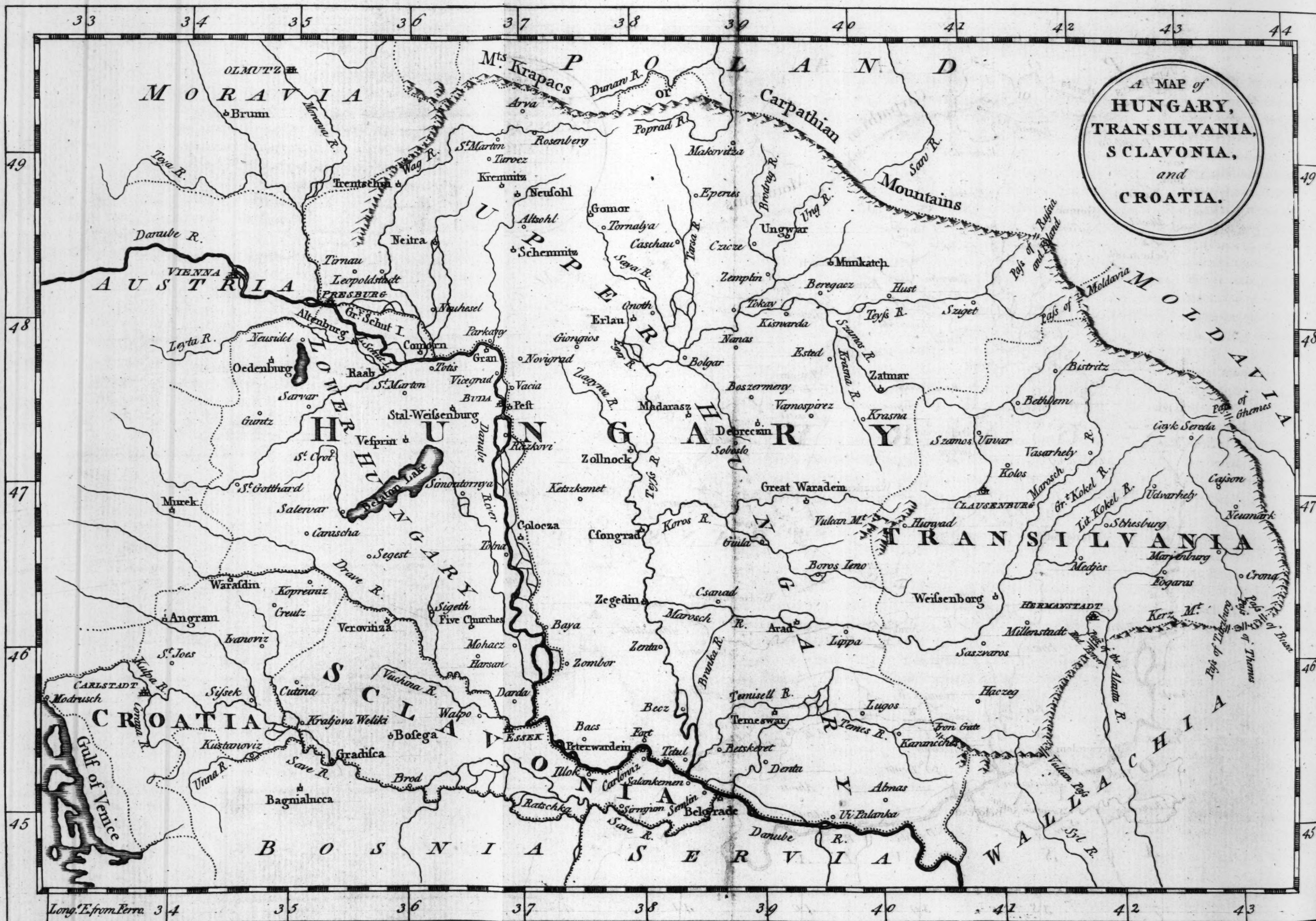
The Genoese for some time disputed the empire of the Mediterranean Sea with the Venetians; but being seldom in a capacity to maintain their own independency by land, they were generally protected, and sometimes subjected, by the French and Imperialists. Their doge, or prime magistrate, is crowned King of Corsica, though that island is now ceded to France. The successful effort the Genoese made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, is almost an unique in history, and affords an illustrious example of courage prompted by despair. At this time, however, their original grandeur is so much on the decline, that they possess no greater revenues than are barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

The Grand Dutchy of Tuscany was formerly subject to the Imperial line, who governed it by deputies till the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs arose, who were the partizans of the Pope and the Gibellines, who espoused the Emperor's interest. The popes then persuaded the Imperial governors in Tuscany to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a short time, forming themselves into a free commonwealth, bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction,

however, at length prevailed over their patriotism ; and the family of the Medici, long before they had obtained any titles of power, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici family, and in particular Cosmo, deservedly honoured with the appellation of the Father of his country, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East India trade, before the discoveries of the Portuguese. The revenue in ready-money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to regal power ; and Pope Pius V. conferred on one of his descendants the title of Great Duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued in his family till the death of Gaston de Medicis in 1737, who left no legitimate issue. On this, the Emperor Charles VI. claimed Tuscany as a fief of the empire, and gave it to his son-in-law the Duke of Lorraine, who was afterwards raised to the Imperial throne, in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, brother to the present Emperor, enjoys the title of Grand Duke of Tuscany ; and under his administration the country assumes a new face. He has extended the commerce of his subjects to a very considerable degree ; and stationed several ships of war on the Tuscan coasts, to prevent the incursions and depredations of the Infidels.

Perhaps no country on earth has undergone more vicissitudes of government than Naples, which seem to have originated from the natural inconstancy of the inhabitants themselves. The Christians and Saracens have by turns subdued it ; the Normans, under Tancred, expelled the Saracens ; and, by means of their connections with the Greeks, established there a most respectable monarchy, flourishing in arts and arms, at a time when Gothic ignorance overspread the rest of Europe. About the year 1166, the popes being then possessed of almost unlimited power in temporal as well as in spiritual affairs, by their intrigues interrupted the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily came into the possession of the French ; when the House of Anjou, with some interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504 ; after which it was annexed to the crown of Spain. This nation exercised such an unpopular and oppressive government, that it gave rise to the famous revolt headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman without shoes or stockings ; whose success was so surprizing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the most oppressive taxes, and to confirm the native freedom of the people. But, before these desirable regulations could be fully perfected, through the continual agitations both of body and mind, this original hero became delirious, and was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily then relapsed under their former oppression, and continued under the Spanish yoke till 1706, when the Archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of that kingdom.

By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the King of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the Houses of Austria and Bourbon, respecting the Neapolitan dominions ; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed King of the Two Sicilies. A bloody campaign followed this event ; but peace being concluded between France and the Emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples acceded, in 1736, the farther effusion of human blood was stopped, and Don Carlos remained King of Naples. On his accession to the crown



crown of Spain in 1759, it being found, after mature deliberation and consultation, that his eldest son was naturally incapacitated for the exercise of sovereign power, he resigned the kingdom of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who espoused an archduchess of Austria.

To give a continued history of papacy, would far exceed the limits we have prescribed to our plan. The most substantial foundations for it's temporal power were laid by the celebrated Matilda, Countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a considerable portion of her dominions to Pope Gregory VII. so well known, before his elevation in 1073, by the name of Hildebrand. For a succession of ages, ignorance gave the papal see a full opportunity of practising spiritual fraud and temporal exaction; but as the Gothic gloom began to disperse, free enquiry usurped the place of papal dogmas; and at last the Reformation emancipated a considerable part of Europe from the delusions of Romish error, fraud, and superstition. Since that æra, however, the popes have sometimes had great weight in public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes. But it evidently appears that their religious delusions have now lost much of their former effect, and that the papal power is at a very low ebb. The order of Jesuits has been totally exterminated from France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; nor is it more than barely tolerated in other Roman Catholic countries. Even the Pope himself is treated with little more veneration or respect than is due to him as Bishop of Rome, and as possessed of a considerable temporal principality: and it is highly probable that, a few ages hence, a total separation from the holy see of all it's foreign emoluments will take place, and that his Holiness will be little better than the nominal head of the Roman Catholic church.

C H A P. XV.

H U N G A R Y.

HUNGARY, the ancient Pannonia, received it's name from a tribe of the Huns, who, in the ninth century, took possession of this country; and it is used both in a limited and extensive sense. In the former, this kingdom is bounded by Servia and the River Drave on the south; by Walachia and Transylvania on the east; by the Carpathian Mountains on the north; and by Moravia, Austria, and Stiria, on the west. In the latter sense, Hungary comprehends Sclavonia, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Servia, and Transylvania; extending from 44 degrees 40 minutes to 49 degrees north latitude, and from 16 to 25 degrees 50 minutes east longitude.

The air of Hungary Proper, particularly in the southern districts, is esteemed highly injurious to health; which insalubrity is supposed to arise from it's numerous lakes, stagnant waters, and putrid marshes; but the northern parts being more sterile and mountainous, the air is esteemed more propitious. No country in the world, however, can boast a richer soil than that beautiful champaign tract which extends from Presburg to Belgrade, (the distance of three hundred miles;) and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons,

melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wines, a variety of fruits, mulberry-trees, chefnuts, and wood.

The principal rivers of Hungary are, the Danube, which rises in Suabia, and after receiving sixty navigable rivers in it's course, discharges itself by several mouths into the Black Sea with a violence which renders it's waters perceptible at the distance of some miles; the Drave, which issues out of Stiria; the Teys, or Tibiscus, which rises in the Carpathian mountains; the Merish; and the Temes: all which are so plentifully stocked with fish, that in some parts of Hungary they are given to the hogs, and in other places a thousand carp have been purchased for the value of an English crown.

Hungary contains several lakes of considerable magnitude; particularly four among the Carpathian mountains: and, for baths and mineral waters, it is the most celebrated of any country in Europe. However, the magnificent buildings erected by the Turks, when this kingdom was in their possession, for the accommodation of those who wished to bathe or drink of these salutary springs, are now much neglected, and rapidly falling to decay.

The Carpathian mountains, which form a boundary on the side of Poland, are the most remarkable of any in this kingdom, though many detached ones are found in different parts. The summit of these mountains is a chaos of tremendous crags and precipices covered with everlasting snow, but their sides produce the most stately trees; and, indeed, the other Hungarian mountains in general are covered with wood, and some of their declivities afford the most delicious grapes.

In metals and minerals, this kingdom is inferior to none; it abounds in gold and silver mines, produces plenty of excellent copper, iron, vitriol, orpiment, quicksilver, chryfocolla, terra sigillata, magnets, asbestos, and gems little inferior to those of the east. Before Hungary became the seat of war between the Christians and the Turks, or fell under the Austrian yoke, these mines were properly worked, and produced immense revenues to the native princes. At that time the Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but also in Germany, and the continent of Europe: but these works being now in a great measure destroyed or demolished, the mines are much decreased in their value; however, some of them still exist, to the great emolument of the natives.

The most remarkable animals of Hungary are wild-boars, bears, wolves, lynxes, deer, chamois, goats, buffaloes, and mules; but the most esteemed is a peculiar fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, of which incredible numbers are annually exported. In the vicinity of Presburg there is a famous breed of sheep of uncommon magnitude, which have twisted horns about two feet in length.

In vegetable productions, nature has been singularly favourable to Hungary; for, exclusive of the choice fruits already enumerated, which are common to other climates, it contains several peculiar to itself. The Tokay wines are as famous as the Falernian of antiquity, and are preferable to those of any other country.

The Romans long retained possession of Hungary before the barbarians of the north entirely overpowered them; and some of the descendants of the legionary forces are still to be distinguished in the interior parts, by their use of the Latin tongue. Before the Turks began to over-run Europe, Hungary was one of the most populous and powerful kingdoms
of

of that continent; and, if it's present masters would give proper encouragement to the natives, and thereby excite a general spirit of industry and improvement, it might in a century or two again be rich in it's soil, happy in it's climate, and populous in it's subjects.

Hungary, exclusive of Transylvania and Croatia, is supposed to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants, who pride themselves on being the descendants of those heroes who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the Mahometans. Being composed of different tribes, a visible disparity may still be traced between the natives of this kingdom; however, they are in general well-proportioned, of good stature, and have tolerable complexions. Their fur-caps, their close-bodied coats girded with a sash, and their cloaks or mantles, which are so contrived as to buckle under their arms, give them an air of military dignity though the enthusiasm of bravery does not appear to be one of their modern attributes. The men have their beards, but preserve the hair on their upper lips; and, besides fire-arms, are accoutred with broad-swords and a kind of pole-axes. The ladies are generally esteemed handsomer than those of Austria; and the most celebrated beauties of Vienna generally come from this country: their sable dress, with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays looped before with gold, pearls, or diamonds, are well known to other European ladies, and are by no means unbecoming. The dress, however, both of men and women, among the lower ranks, is extremely mean; and, in what are called the Mine-towns, furs, and even sheep-skin robes, are commonly worn.

In the Hungarian towns, travellers meet with tolerable entertainment; but the inns on the roads are generally wretched hovels, and those but thinly scattered. The peasants principally subsist on hogs and poultry; which animals are commonly admitted into the same apartment with their masters. The predominant diseases in Hungary are the gout and fever; both which are supposed, in many cases, to originate from the great insalubrity of the air.

The natives, though not destitute of bravery and magnanimity, are in general extremely indolent, leaving trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other travellers settled in their country; which, from it's numerous rivers, is excellently adapted for the purposes of an extensive commerce. The diversions of the Hungarians are of the warlike and athletic kind, which they seem to have preserved from their ancestors through a succession of generations; a jealousy of their liberties prompting them at different periods to claim the protection of the Turks, rather than submit to the Austrian tyranny: but their fidelity to the late Empress Queen, notwithstanding the provocations received from her house, will always redound to their honour.

In Tameswar, a province lately gained from the Turks, and incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are about 450,000 inhabitants; among whom are many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to be the real descendants of the ancient Egyptians; whom they are said to resemble in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and institutions. The lascivious dances of Isis, the adoration of onions, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, with many famous superstitions and specifics, are still asserted to be preserved among the female gypsies of Tameswar.

The Roman Catholic religion is established throughout Hungary; however, the major part of the inhabitants are Protestants, or Greeks, who are now indulged with the full exercise of their religious liberties. The archbishoprics are those of Presburg, Gran, and Colocza; and the bishoprics, those of Great Waradin, Agria, Vespriin, Raab, and Five Churches.

The Hungarians, being an assemblage of different nations, have a variety of dialects; one of which bears a strong affinity to the original Hebrew. The higher and middle ranks speak German; and Latin is universally understood, and spoke even by the common people, though not in its utmost purity; however, in this country it may still be deemed a living language.

The universities, if they may with propriety be so called, are those of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Cafcham, in which the Jesuits used to teach the several arts and sciences; so that the Lutherans and Calvinists send their children to German and other universities, where Protestant tutors are allowed, though very narrow bounds have lately been prescribed to their acquirements.

Hungary is far from being commercial in proportion to its extent; its principal exports are wines, saffron, oil, metals, minerals, cattle, leather, wool, tallow, and wax; and its imports are spices, tin, silk, velvets, cloths, and other foreign commodities.

In this kingdom a variety of coins are circulated; and, indeed, it was formerly remarkable for its coinage, there being still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of the coins of their ancient kings; and more Greek and Roman medals have, perhaps, been discovered here, than in any other European country.

It is remarkable that the Hungarians always contended with their princes about their rights and privileges, till the Imperial Eagle decided the controversy by destroying both, and left them only the shadow of their ancient constitution; and that their states assemble, like the parliament of France, only to record the arbitrary decrees of the Emperor; and, by signing their approbation of them, to take off from the odium which every destructive measure would bring upon the court. Besides this nominal parliament, however, every royal town has its respective senate, and different chambers are instituted for the administration of justice and the regulation of finance.

The coronation ceremony of the Hungarian kings used to be performed with much solemnity; and so partial are the natives still to that royal appellation, and so averse to the name of Queen, that they called their late sovereign King Teresa. The regalia of the kingdom, which is preserved at Presburg with great veneration, consists principally of the sword and crown of St Stephen, without which no prince is allowed to be legally invested with royal power.

The Emperor can bring into the field 50,000 Hungarians, when required, in their own country; but seldom draws out of it more than 10,000, who are generally light-horse, and well known by the name of Hussars. The Hungarian horses are in general not so large as the German ones; on which account the hussars are obliged to stand on their short stirrups when they strike: their expedition and alertness, however, have been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest European powers maintain troops under the same title. The Hungarian

Hungarian infantry are called Heydukes, and wear as many feathers in their caps as equal the number of enemies they pretend to have dispatched. Both horse and foot form an excellent militia, extremely well disciplined in the arts of pursuit, and of ravaging and depopulation; but unable to combat with regular troops in a pitched battle.

The arms of Hungary are, a Shield longitudinally divided; the right field, Gules, divided by four bars, Argent; the left quarter also Gules, with an Archiepiscopal Cross, Argent, standing on a triple hill, Vert. The Emperor, however, as King of Hungary, for his armorial badge, bears quarterly, barwise, Argent, and Gules of eight pieces.

The principal cities of Hungary Proper are Presburg, Buda, Peff, Raab, Gran, Comora, and Tokay.

Presburg, a royal free city, and the capital of the kingdom, delightfully situated on the Danube, in 48 degrees 8 minutes north latitude, and in 17 degrees 36 minutes east longitude, enjoys a more salubrious air than any other place in the kingdom. In this city the diets are held, and the treasury-office kept; and formerly the Hungarian kings uniformly received the rite of inauguration in the cathedral dedicated to St. Martin. The city itself is of great antiquity, and contains a considerable number of civil, literary, and ecclesiastical institutions; but the houses within the walls are very indifferent structures, though the suburbs are spacious and handsome.

The Castle, being a large quadrangular pile, with uniform towers at the corners, stands on a pleasant eminence, two hundred paces to the west of the city. Before Hungary fell into the hands of the Imperial family, it was the royal residence; and some of the apartments seem to have been no disparagement to their original possessors. The crown, and other articles of national regalia, are kept in the castle-towers, under several locks, and are never exhibited. In the Armory are several warlike engines, both offensive and defensive, the uses of which are but little known to moderns.

Buda, the ancient capital of the kingdom, situated in 47 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 19 degrees 20 minutes east longitude, gives name to two cities, the Old and the New. Old Buda stands in a plain extending from the suburbs of New Buda to the Pilis mountains and the Danube, and is now only venerable for its ruins and Roman monuments. New Buda was built by Bela IV. on a mountain near the Danube, and was formerly the largest and most elegant city in the kingdom, but has suffered extremely from the numerous sieges, blockades, and captures, it has undergone. It is surrounded with a strong wall and deep moats, and farther protected by a castle of immense strength. The royal palace was reckoned a very superb fabric, but is now entirely destroyed; and, indeed, there is hardly a single structure within this city which does not bear some marks of violence and decay.

In the suburbs are several warm baths; the principal of which, called the Emperor's, is constructed after the model of the Rotunda at Rome, with a large aperture in the centre of the dome, besides several small holes round the cupola for the admission of more light. In a large bath in the centre of the other four, both sexes publicly bathe together, the men wearing only a kind of drawers, and the women what they term a fore-shift; but the common people,

people, for whose use one of the other baths is appropriated, think even this slight covering superfluous.

Pest, a royal free town on the Danube, opposite to Buda, with which it preserves a communication by a bridge of boats, is the seat of a supreme court of appeal, and contains several useful institutions; but having fallen at various periods into the hands of the Turks, and been sometimes possessed, and at others abandoned by the Imperialists, it has lost the greatest part of its ancient magnificence, and is now principally remarkable for its bridge over the Danube, about half a mile in length.

Raab, an ancient and strong fortress, situated in a pleasant country at the conflux of the Danube, the Raab, and the Rabnitz, by which it is encompassed, was raised to the rank of a royal free city in 1742. The houses are built of the most durable materials, the streets are spacious and straight, and the city itself is honoured with an university and an episcopal see.

The fortifications of the city and castle are chiefly the work of the Emperors Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. which last is always furnished with a strong garrison, well provided with military stores: however, in 1529, the soldiers were so intimidated by the Turks, that they set fire to the castle, and abandoned the city, which in 1566 was burnt to the ground; and, some years afterwards, delivered up to the Turks by convention, from whom it was recovered by a stratagem of Count Adolphus of Swartzenburg.

Gran, situated in a very fertile country at the confluence of the Gran and the Danube, in 48 degrees 21 minutes north latitude, and 18 degrees 46 minutes east longitude, was formerly the residence of the Primate of Hungary, and contained many stately ecclesiastical structures. In this city King Stephen was born in 909, and buried in the cathedral, which he himself had built. The Turks got possession of Gran in 1543, but in 1596 were expelled by the Imperialists. On this occasion Sir Thomas Arundel, of Wardour Castle, signalized himself in an uncommon manner; for which he was created a Count of the Empire by the Emperor Rodolph, and afterwards King James I. made him an English Baron; which honours his descendants still enjoy.

Comora, situated in an island at the confluence of the Wag and the Danube, is only remarkable for an impregnable fortification; and Tokay is more celebrated for the delicious wines produced in its vicinity than for any efforts of art or internal opulence.

Hungary, indeed, contains many ancient fortifications, which, during its wars with the Infidels, were indispensably necessary; but these having in many places fallen to decay, it cannot at present be said to exhibit many specimens of architectural excellence. It is, however, by no means destitute of natural curiosities; among which we shall only mention a surprising cavern in the vicinity of a village named Szelitze. The entrance of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad, and consequently wide enough to admit the south wind, which blows here with uncommon violence; but the subterranean passages, consisting entirely of solid rock, stretch farther to the south than any inquisitive traveller has yet discovered. As far, however, as any adventurer has proceeded, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-six; but the most unaccountable singularity is, that in the depth of winter the internal air is warm; and, when
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the heat of the sun is scarce supportable without; the cold within is not only very piercing, but so intense, that the top is covered with large icicles, which, spreading into ramifications, form very fantastical figures. When the vernal snow dissolves, the inside of the cave, where it's surface is exposed to the southern sun, emits a pellucid water, which immediately congeals as it drops, and thus forms the above icicles. The numbers of flies, gnats, bats, owls, and even foxes and hares, which make this cavern their winter retreat, till the beginning of spring, when the cold obliges them to change their habitations, is really astonishing. The hill rises above the cavern to a prodigious height; and, on the southern side, produces grass in the utmost luxuriance.

Transylvania, a part of the ancient Dacia, which derives it's present name from it's lying behind the immense forests which surround the Carpathian Mountains, is a rich and fertile country, blessed with a pure and temperate air, and abounding in mines, metals, and minerals. It is bounded on the north by the Carpathian Mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the east by Moldavia and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the west by Upper and Lower Hungary; extending from 45 to 48 degrees of north latitude, and from 22 to 25 degrees of east longitude.

This country is under the Imperial jurisdiction; nevertheless, it's interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes, who owe little more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians. Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Greeks, Mahometans, and several other sectaries, enjoy their respective religious opinions; and it is supposed that Transylvania adds but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. The seat of government is Hermanstadt, the governor of which is assisted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meet by summons, and receive the mandates of their sovereign, to whom they have lately shewn more implicit deference than formerly: however, they possess the liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

This country is composed of several different nations, who in general retain their original language and institutions. It's population is not easily ascertained; but, if the Transylvanians can bring into the field 30,000 troops, we may reasonably conclude that the whole number of inhabitants must be very considerable. The genius of this people has been of a military nature from the earliest ages: the Romans could never totally subdue them; nor does it appear that their descendants have degenerated from their original character. At present, however, their military force is reduced to six regiments, of 1500 men each; but it is well known that, during the two last wars in which the House of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians were of the most essential service: the various revolutions in their government evince their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz gave the sovereignty of this country to the House of Austria, the natives enjoy what may be called a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns find it prudent to permit.

Learning is but little cultivated in Transylvania; nor is religion in a very flourishing condition, though no restrictions are laid on the dictates of conscience with respect to it's profession. The Roman Catholic persuasion, however, may be regarded as the established religion,

ligion, over which a bishop presides, whose see is at *Hermanstadt*, the capital of the whole country.

Hermanstadt is situated in 46 degrees 51 minutes north latitude, and in 25 degrees 1 minute east longitude; and is large, populous, and well fortified. It is governed by the Royal Chamber, the Tribunal of Appeals, and the Diet; besides which, the General and Royal Governor of the Saxon nation honour it with their residence. The air, however, is so extremely insalubrious, that many of the finest buildings are uninhabited.

The principal trade of *Hermanstadt* consists in cloth and mead, which are exported in considerable quantities to the neighbouring countries. Formerly it carried on a considerable traffic with Greece; but this was in a great measure lost during the long continuance of the wars; and, since their termination, the city has greatly declined.

Slavonia, lying between the 45th and 47th degrees of north latitude, and between the 16th and 22d of east longitude, is computed to be 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth; being bounded by the Drave on the north; by the Danube on the east; by the Save on the south; and by Kiria, in Austria, on the west.

To account for Hungary, Transylvania, Slavonia, and the other neighbouring nations subject to the House of Austria, being composed of such a surprizing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners; we need only reflect, that the enthusiastic spirit of liberty there made it's last stand against the Romans, the conquerors of the world; who, by degrees, drove the remains of the different vanquished nations into these quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the natural strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendants still retain the most legible characters of those unsubmitting heroes from whom they sprung. Without regarding the arrangements made by the ambition of the sovereigns of Europe, they seem to acquiesce under that government with most pleasure which allows them the greatest latitude of privilege and ancient freedom: however, they are no less generous than brave, as incontestibly appears from their faithful attachment to the House of Austria, which, till the two last wars in which it was engaged, was neither sensible of their value nor valour. The Slavonians formerly were such formidable opponents to the Roman arms, that it is supposed the word Slave received it's origin from the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage so late as the reign of Charlemagne.

Slavonia is not inferior, either in beauty of situation or fertility of soil, to Hungary or Transylvania; but the ravages of war strongly mark the face of the country, considerable tracts still lying unimproved. The Slavonians, perhaps from their ignorance, are zealous Roman Catholics; though other persuasions are freely tolerated. There are two episcopal sees, those of *Rosoga* and *Zagrab*; but we know of no universities: and, indeed, if possible, learning seems at a lower ebb in this country than in Transylvania.

The Slavonians are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and various other tribes whose names were never known to the Austrians themselves but from their military muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field in support of the Pragmatic Sanction.

Croatia,

Croatia, lying between 45 and 47 degrees of north latitude, and 15 and 17 of east longitude, is about eighty miles long, and seventy broad. In their manners, government, religion, language, and customs, the Croats are similar to the Sclavonians and Transylvanians, their neighbours. They are esteemed excellent irregular troops, and are much celebrated in modern history under the description of Pandours, and various other designations. The House of Austria, to whom the sovereignty of this country unquestionably belongs, finds it's interest in suffering these nations to live according to their original institutions. Ignorant of polished life, and strangers to the delicacies of other European nations, they preserve their native bravery; and, on all occasions, have shewn themselves well qualified for deeds of enterprize and glory. Their towns and territories are blended with one another, boundaries being but little regarded. Indeed, the principal jurisdiction exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field.

Hungarian Dalmatia lies on the upper part of the Adriatic Sea, and consists of five districts. The air is pure and temperate; and the country is agreeably variegated with fertile mountains, producing olives, vines, myrtles, and an infinite quantity of choice vegetables.

This country, like Croatia, is peopled with an assemblage of various nations; the most remarkable of which are the Uscocs, a race of men who, being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, and settled near Segna; whence they obtained the title of Uscocs, from the word Scoco, which signifies a Deserter. They also obtained the appellation of Springers, or Leapers, from the uncommon agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along the rugged and mountainous tract they possess. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are rough and savage in their dispositions, large-sized, of the most intrepid spirit, and addicted to rapine, though their ostensible employment is grazing. They speak the Walachian language; and, in their religious sentiments and mode of worship, approach nearest to the Greek church: some of them, however, profess the Roman Catholic religion.

The most considerable places in Hungarian Dalmatia are Segna and Otoschatz.

Segna, a royal free town, extremely well fortified both by art and nature, is situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren soil. The bishop of this place, which contains twelve churches and two convents, is suffragan to the Archbishop of Spalatro. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle; and the upper fort, which stands on an eminence fronting the town, is the residence of the deputy-governor.

Otoschatz is a frontier fortification on the Gatzka, a river plentifully stocked with fish. That part of the fortress in which the governor and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall and some towers: while the rest of the buildings, which are but mean, are erected on straggling piles drove into the bed of the river; so that the nearest neighbours have no communication but by means of boats.

Having finished the description of Hungary Proper, with the several neighbouring countries appendant on the Austrian crown, we shall subjoin a short history of the former, deduced from the most authentic accounts.

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The Huns, a barbarous tribe, who towards the decline of the Roman empire invaded Pannonia, having subdued the country, communicated their name to it. Hungary, during a succession of ages, was an assemblage of different states; and the first who assumed the title of King was Stephen, about the year 1000; when he embraced Christianity; completed the establishment of that religion; annexed Transylvania as a province to Hungary; and, on his decease, was canonized. After him followed a succession of twenty kings, natives of the country, the last of whom was Andrew III. who died in the year 1301. About this time King Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Slavonia, and many other provinces; but several of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the fifteenth century, Hunniadas, who was left guardian to the infant King Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, who invaded Hungary; and, on the demise of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, out of gratitude, elevated Matthias Corvinus, son of Hunniadas, to the throne. Louis, King of Hungary, fell in battle in 1526, as he was bravely fighting against Solymán, Emperor of the Turks. This battle, indeed, had nearly proved fatal to Hungary; but the Archduke Ferdinand, brother to the Emperor Charles V. having espoused the sister of Louis, claimed the title of Hungary; to which, after some opposition, he succeeded. That kingdom has since been subject to the House of Austria; though, by its constitution, the crown ought to have been elective.

From this æra the history of Hungary becomes blended with that of Germany; as there are few events, either belligerent or pacific, in which these two countries have not been mutually interested.

C H A P. XVI.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

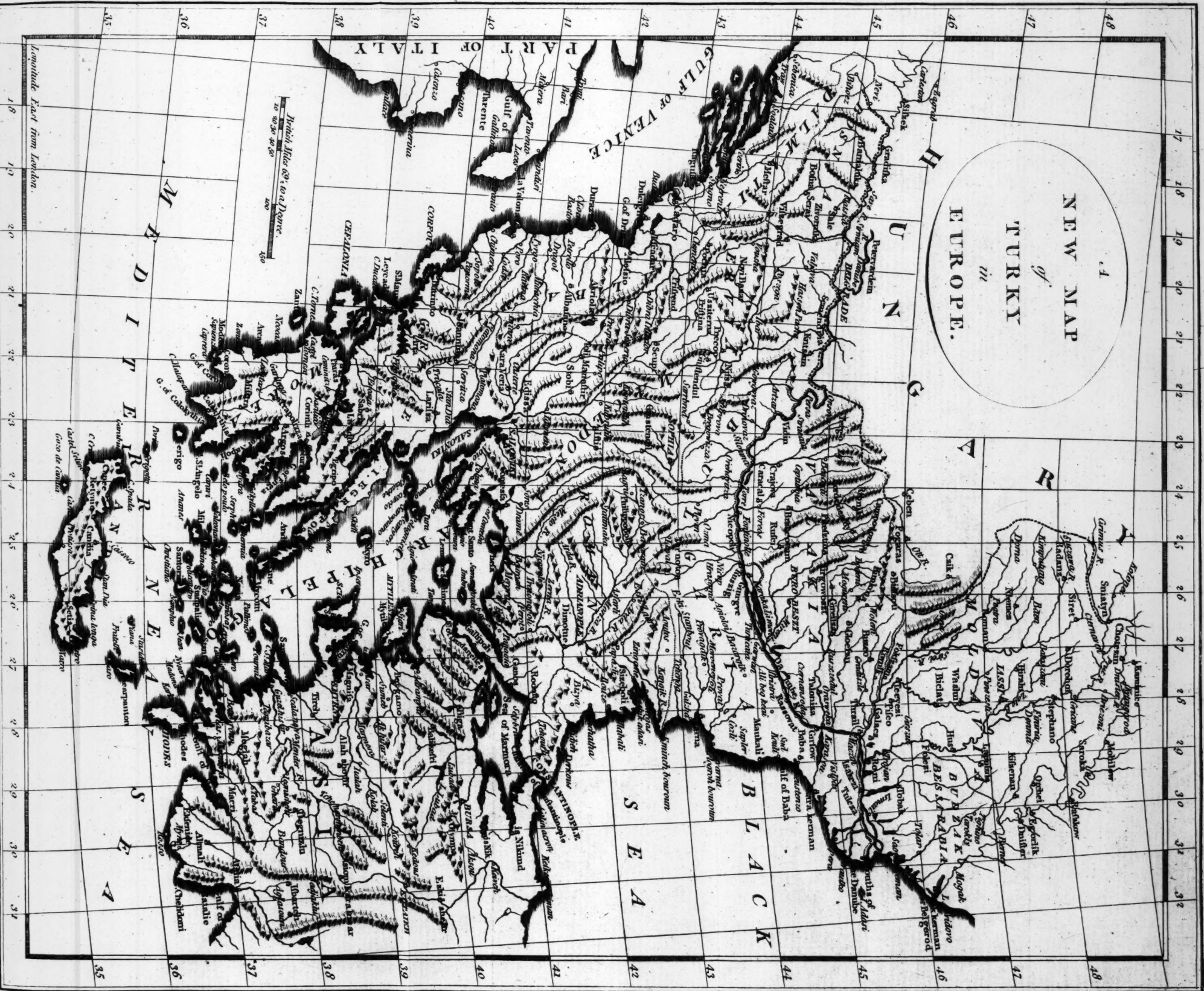
THIS country, which forms a considerable part of the ancient Christian empire of the east, is bounded by Russia, Poland, and Slavonia, on the north; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and Archipelago, on the east; by the Mediterranean on the south; and by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian dominions, on the west; extending from 36 to 49 degrees of north latitude, and from 17 to 40 of east longitude.

Turkey in Europe contains some of the most fertile provinces in the world, lying in the most genial climates; which, with their divisions, subdivisions, and capitals, are exhibited in the subsequent Table.

DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CAPITALS.
To the north of the Black Sea lie	Crim and Little Tartary, the ancient Taurica Chersonese. Budziac Tartary.	Caffa. Brachiseria. Precop. Ockzakow.

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NEW MAP of TURKEY in EUROPE.



TURKEY IN EUROPE.

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DIVISIONS.	SUBDIVISIONS.	CAPITALS.
To the north of the Danube lie,	Beffarabia - - - - -	{ Bender.
	Moldavia, the ancient Dacia - - -	{ Belgorod.
	Wallachia - - - - -	{ Jazy.
To the south of the Danube lie,	Bulgaria, part of the ancient Myfia	{ Choczim.
	Servia, another part of Myfia - - -	{ Falczin.
	Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum	{ Tergovisc.
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont lie,	Romania, the ancient Thrace - - -	{ Widin.
		{ Nicopoli.
The northern Part of ancient Greece,	Macedonia - - - - -	{ Silistria.
	Theffaly, now Janua - - - - -	{ Scopia.
	Achaia and Boeotia, now Livadia - -	{ Belgrade.
On the Adriatic Sea, the ancient Illyricum,	Epirus - - - - -	{ Semendria.
	Albania - - - - -	{ Nissa.
	Dalmatia - - - - -	{ Seralo.
South Part of ancient Greece,	Ragusa, republic - - - - -	{ Constantinople.
	Corinthia - - - - -	{ Adrianople.
	Argos - - - - -	{ Strymon.
	Sparta - - - - -	{ Contessa.
	Olympia - - - - -	{ Salonichi.
	Arcadia - - - - -	{ Athens.
	Elis - - - - -	{ Thebes.
		{ Lepanto.
		{ Chimæra.
		{ Butrinto.
		{ Durazzo.
		{ Dulcigno
		{ Zara.
		{ Narenza.
		{ Ragusa.
		{ Corinth.
		{ Argos.
		{ Napoli de Romania.
		{ Lacedæmon, now Mistra, on the River Eurotus.
		{ Olympia, or Longinica, on the River Alpheus.
		{ Moëon.
		{ Coron.
		{ Partas.
		{ Elis, or Belvidere, on the River Peneus.

The air of Turkey in Europe is naturally extremely salubrious, and friendly to the human constitution; but, from the want of cultivation, and the indolence and uncleanness of the Turks in their manner of living, the plague frequently makes dreadful ravages; though the Mahometan doctrine of fatality, and the prevalence of custom, render the natives in general very unconcerned about it. The soil being universally fertile, all the necessaries,

and many of the luxuries of life, are equally good and cheap. The seasons are regular and pleasant; and no country in the world abounds more in pure and salubrious waters, which invite the Turks to frequent ablutions, as well on account of religion as pleasure.

The mountains in this country are some of the most fruitful and celebrated of any in Europe. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula running into the Ægean Sea; the Mounts Pinus and Olympus, celebrated in Græcian fable, divide Thessaly from Epirus; Parnassus, famous in poetry for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known; as well as Mount Hemus: but most of the other mountains have changed their names; and even some of those celebrated ones of antiquity above-mentioned have received modern names from the neighbouring barbarians.

The principal seas are the Euxine, or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Afoph; the Sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian Sea; and the Levant; which are so many evidences that Turkey in Europe (under the management of an enterprising people) is eminently adapted for an extensive commerce, and has the best claim to the title of Mistress of the World.

The straits of the Hellespont and Bosphorus, united to the Sea of Marmora, are famous in modern, as well as in ancient history.

The chief rivers in European Turkey are the Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don; with several others which, though of inferior consideration, have been highly celebrated by poets and historians.

Where the smallest degree of industry has been exerted, the soil is prolific to excess; and, exclusive of corn, wine, oil, garden and pot-herbs, in the utmost abundance, this country produces in amazing perfection oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Besides these valuable productions, it affords many drugs not common in other European countries; nor are the very bowels of the earth deficient in those metals and minerals on which luxury or convenience have set such a considerable value.

With respect to animals, the Thessalian or Turkish horses are both beautiful and serviceable; and the black cattle, especially in Greece, are large and excellent. The goats are extremely valuable to the natives, both on account of their milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the vicinity of Badadagi furnish the best arrow-feathers for the Turkish archers, and they are accordingly sold at an immense price. Partridges are very plentiful; as well as most other European fowls and quadrupeds, both wild and domestic: but the Mahometans seem by no means partial to the use of animal food.

The Turks in all countries being uniformly the same, the character and description given of them under the Asiatic part of their dominions, may in a great measure suffice; however, we shall add some particulars which are there but slightly mentioned, connected with a summary of some of the most remarkable circumstances relating to this people.

European Turkey is far from being populous in proportion to its extent, which may be chiefly attributed to pestilence, polygamy, war, and arbitrary government. Its inhabitants consist

consist of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Servians, Bosnians, Bulgarians, Walachians, and Tartars; together with a considerable number of Jews, who principally reside in Constantinople and Sclavonia.

The Turks are generally stigmatized as an indolent and inhuman people; but their vices are certainly in many respects exaggerated, while their virtues are entirely forgot. Among the Mahometans, there are men of the greatest honour and probity; and, though learning is but little cultivated among them, they are not universally destitute of pretensions to genius. They are extremely affectionate to one another; and a remarkable instance of their charitable disposition to strangers may be seen in their hans, or caravanferas, erected in almost every village; and in which travellers, of whatever religion or country, may reside three days without any expence. But while we allow them their proportion of good qualities, we are not so partial as to overlook their bad ones: they are far from being amiable in their converse with foreigners; are avaricious, superstitious, and morose; and, though indulged with wives and concubines without limitation, are notorious for the frequent commission of unnatural crimes.

The Turks are robust, well-shaped, of a good mien, endued with extraordinary patience under hardships, and inured to the toils of war from their infancy. Persons of rank, indeed, seldom train up their children to any other profession, esteeming military glory the summit of honour and advantage.

They are very particular in their dress, manner of living, and customs; from which, for ages, they have made little deviation. The men shave their heads, but wear long beards; except those in the seraglio, and in the military, who content themselves with whiskers. They sit cross-legged on mats, not only at meals, but also in company; and their ideas being very contracted, they usually spend their time at home in trifling conversations with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They possess little curiosity; and when a vizier, bashaw, or other officer, is deposed or strangled, they only observe on the occasion, that there will be a new vizier or governor, seldom troubling themselves to enquire into the causes of the former minister's disgrace. They have few printed books; seldom reading any other than the Koran, and the comments written upon it.

The Turks always dine about eleven in the morning; and sup at five in the evening in winter, and at six in summer; which last forms their principal meal. With respect to the grandees, their dishes, which are always high-seasoned, are served up one by one; but they neither use knives nor forks, and gold and silver spoons are prohibited by their religion. Rice is the common food of the lower ranks; and water, sherbet, or coffee, the universal beverage of all descriptions of persons.

The common salutation of the natives of this vast empire is an inclination of their heads, and laying their right-hands on their breasts; but, to persons of rank, they stoop so low as to touch, and even kiss, the borders of their garments. Few of them have any notion of walking or riding, either for health or pleasure; however, the more religious find sufficient exercise in conforming to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites, prescribed by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist either in shooting at marks, or in tilting with darts; at both
which

which exercises they are extremely adroit. Some of their nobles are fond of hunting, and accordingly take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is oftener done for the political purpose of knowing the strength of their dependants, than to enjoy the pleasures of the chase. Their domestic amusements consist in playing at chess and drafts; though all games of chance, as well as wagering, are strictly forbid by the Koran.

The Greeks, the ancient inhabitants of this country, are intermixed with the Turks; and in several places, especially the islands, are the most numerous. Even in the city of Constantinople these people are estimated at about four hundred thousand. Being accustomed to servitude, they prefer living under the exactions of the Turks to the spiritual tyranny of the Pope: however, they are obliged to be very circumspect in their conduct; and, in case of a war with any of the Christian powers, the Turks generally disarm them.

Marriages in Turkey are usually negotiated by the female friends; and, when the terms are agreed on, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the Cadi, and the parties are joined in wedlock by an Iman. This ceremony, as in most other countries, is accompanied with mirth and festivity; and the money is generally expended in furnishing the house of the young couple. By the institutions of their prophet, the Turks are allowed only four wives; but concubinage being under no limitation, all the most opulent keep their harems of women.

The funerals are remarkably decent. The corpse of the deceased is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and, after being deposited some time in a mosque, or temple, is buried in a field, the Iman delivering a funeral sermon at the place of interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms-giving and prayers; and the females, by decking the tomb, on certain days, with flowers and green leaves. In mourning for a husband, the latter are obliged to forego all finery for a year, and confine themselves to a particular head-dress prescribed for such occasions.

Throughout Turkey the established religion is Mahometanism, so called from Mahomet, its author. But though the Turks universally agree in the general belief of Mahomet's divine legation, they are divided into as many different sects as the Christians. There being no ordination among their clergy, the only qualification necessary for the priesthood is the assumption of a particular habit, and performance of the functions of that order, and the office may be relinquished at pleasure. The chief ecclesiastic, who is called the Mufti, (signifying an Expounder of the Law) is of such dignity, that whenever he comes into court the Emperor himself rises from his seat and advances to meet him.

As the Turkish government draws considerable supplies from the toleration of Christianity, the Greeks and other Christian sectaries live unmolested, though they are liable to many hardships and exactions. Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, have their respective patriarchs; and their heads are indulged with a civil as well as ecclesiastical jurisdiction over their votaries, on paying for that privilege. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and, indeed, every great city which can afford to pay for the privilege is permitted to appoint its own bishop or archbishop.

Both the Turks and Greeks have their respective convents and monks. Mount Athos alone, commonly called Monto Santo, has twenty-two Greek convents, besides a great number

number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits. These monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the Holy Mountain, are so far from being a slothful people, that, besides their attendance on the daily offices of religion, they are employed in cultivating their olive and vineyards, and in various mechanical occupations. They lead a very austere life; their usual food being sallads, dried olives, figs, and other fruits, with onions and cheese, and sometimes fish. Their fasts are numerous and severe; which, added to the salubrity of the air, contribute much to their longevity. Elian informs us, that the summit of this mountain was always esteemed conducive to health; whence the inhabitants were called *Macrobii*, or Long-lived; and *Philostatus* remarks, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this place, for the better contemplation of the heavenly bodies.

The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, the Greek, the Arabic, and the Syriac; all which are in a manner blended in the present dialect.

Modern polite literature is totally unknown among the Turks; and, indeed, it's acquirement is despised. Greece, once the nursery of genius, arts and sciences, produces a numerous tribe of bishops, priests, and monks; but, in general, they are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, whose education seldom extends farther than the reading of their native language and the Koran, and being capable of a very little epistolary correspondence. Some of the Turks, however, understand so much of astronomy, as enables them to calculate an eclipse; but the number is very small, and they are generally regarded as persons of extraordinary sagacity.

Commerce and manufactures are but little regarded among the Turks; the very nature of their government destroying that happy security which is the mother of arts, industry, and commerce: and such is the debasement of the human mind, when borne down by tyranny and oppression, that all the advantages which lavish nature presents to the inhabitants of this country cannot stimulate them to exertion. Tyre, Sidon, and Alexandria, with all those countries which were in possession of the commerce of the ancient world, are now enveloped in indolence, ignorance, and barbarism. The Turks command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the Southern Ocean; consequently all the riches of the Indies might be theirs: and, though their capital is situated in a narrow strait which separates Europe from Asia, rendering an intercourse with all the other European nations not only practicable but easy, the Mahometans, disregarding these combined local advantages, dose away life in the most stupid inactivity.

This empire produces all the commodities necessary for the most extended plan of industry and commerce: the Turks, however, alike averse to mental and corporeal exertions, content themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and soap; but export the most valuable of their commodities, such as silks, drugs, and dyeing stuffs, in their natural state, without improving their value by labour. The internal commerce of the empire, which is extremely contracted, is principally carried on by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with the rest of Europe, the Turks are entirely passive; the English, French, Dutch, and other maritime powers, resorting thither with their commodities, and bringing back those of Turkey in their own bottoms. Indeed, the Turks themselves are possessed only of a few

coasting-vessels, which never attempt any distant voyages. But perhaps their inattention to commercial concerns is the principal security of their government; since it preserves the balance of European power, and prevents those jealousies among the other trading nations of Europe, which would unquestionably arise were the Turks to pursue a different line of conduct.

The Turkish government is generally considered as an accumulation of all that is odious in arbitrary power: however, the most modern and best informed writers assert, that the natural rigours of that despotic empire are considerably softened by the restraints of religion; for though there is no hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and secure by being annexed to the church, which is effected at an inconsiderable expence. Even Jews and Christians may by this means secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been hitherto held, that there is probably not a single instance on record of any attempt on the side of the prince to trespass on or reverse it. Nor does the inviolable attachment to this institution originate from the superstition of the Sultan: he is well aware that every attempt to violate it would shake the foundation of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion; and, were he once to infringe them, he would be regarded as an Infidel, and cease to be the legal representative of Mahomet on earth. The same observation extends to all the precepts laid down in the Koran, which was intended by Mahomet as a code of jurisprudence, as well as a system of religion: the laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them the civil and religious rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this work, which explain the law where obscure, or extend and compleat what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the original institutions of the prophet; and no member of the society, however potent, can transgress them without censure, or violate them with impunity.

The most wretched subjects of the Turkish government are those who approach to the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden vicissitudes, by depending on the capricious disposition of royalty. In this country there is a regular gradation of great officers: of whom the vizier, or prime-minister; the chiaya, second in power to the vizier; and the reis-effendi, or secretary of state; are the most considerable. These, as well as the musti, or high-priest; the bashaws, or governors of provinces; the civil judges; and many others; are commonly raised, by their application and industry, from the humblest walks of life, being frequently the children of Tartarian or Christian captives. Trained up in the rigid school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand dangers and difficulties, these men are generally as much distinguished for bravery and abilities as they are deficient in virtue, honour, and generosity. Possessing all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which usually accompany gratified ambition in a humble rank; and, from the precarious tenure of their posts, making a merit of plundering the people to enrich themselves; the administration of justice must consequently be very corrupt: but this certainly proceeds rather from the want of equity in the judges, than from the civil institutions of the empire.

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The revenues drawn from the various provinces of which this vast empire is composed, must be really immense, as they arise from so many sources, and are collected with so little regard to justice and equity. A variety of the taxes, however, fall on the Christians, and other subjects not of the Mahometan persuasion; and the Tartars, and other nations bordering on Turkey, who are still governed by their own princes and laws, considerably increase the revenues of the Ottoman Empire by their annual stipulated tributes. All these resources, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the specious denomination of royal presents. These inhuman harpies, to indemnify themselves, as has been previously remarked, practise every species of oppression which avarice can suggest; till, becoming opulent from draining the vitals of the countries they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and immediately their whole fortune is seized for the benefit of the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted either with the nature of his accusation or the names of his accusers; and, without the smallest opportunity of replying to the allegations against him, or vindicating his honour, an officer is dispatched with an imperial decree to take off his head. The unfortunate bashaw receives this mandate with reverential awe; and, after reading it, testifies his entire resignation to the will of his prince, by saying—'The will of God and the Emperor be done!' or some expression of similar import. He then receives a silken cord, which the officer has always ready lodged in his bosom; and, having tied it about his own neck, and offered up a short ejaculation, the officer's servants throw him down on the floor, and drawing the cord tight, soon dispatch him; after which his head is struck off, and carried to court.

The established militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts; such as have certain lands appropriated to their maintenance, and those who are paid out of the treasury: the former amount to about 280,000 men; besides which, there are immense bodies of auxiliary troops raised by the tributary countries of this empire, who are commanded by their respective princes. Exclusive of all these, in every war, a great number of volunteers follow the camp, who live at their own charge, in expectation of promotion. These adventurers not only promise themselves an ample fortune if they survive, but are impressed with a firm belief that, if they die in arms against the Christians, they will be immediately admitted into paradise.

The forces which are paid from the treasury are called the Spahis, or horse-guards, in number about 12,000 men; and the Janizaries, or foot-guards, esteemed the best foldiers in the Turkish armies, on whom the principal dependance in an engagement is placed. They amount to about 25,000 men, and are all quartered in Constantinople and its vicinity. They frequently grow mutinous, and have sometimes proceeded so far as to depose the Sultan himself. The Janizaries are educated in the Seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and so extensive are their privileges, that there are numbers over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this corps for the purpose of partaking of those immunities.

In this empire the utmost care is taken of the education of youth destined to fill the different departments in the state, army, and navy; however, they are seldom preferred before they

they reach their fortieth year, and then only rise by their merit or address. They are generally the most beautiful, sprightly, and engaging children, which can be met with; and are always reviewed by the Grand Signior in person, before they are adopted and sent to the colleges or seminaries, where they are educated for employments suited to their respective abilities.

The ladies of the Seraglio are an assemblage of the most beautiful young women who can be collected from the various islands and provinces of the empire. On their admission, they are committed to the care of old matrons, and taught vocal and instrumental music, with dancing, and all other accomplishments which can contribute to render them lovely and engaging. They are furnished with the richest cloaths and ornaments, but are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the Grand Signior removes from one place to another, and then a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are inclosed with lattices; and, when they travel by land, they are put into close chariots, signals being displayed at certain distances, to give notice that none may approach the roads through which their intended route lies.

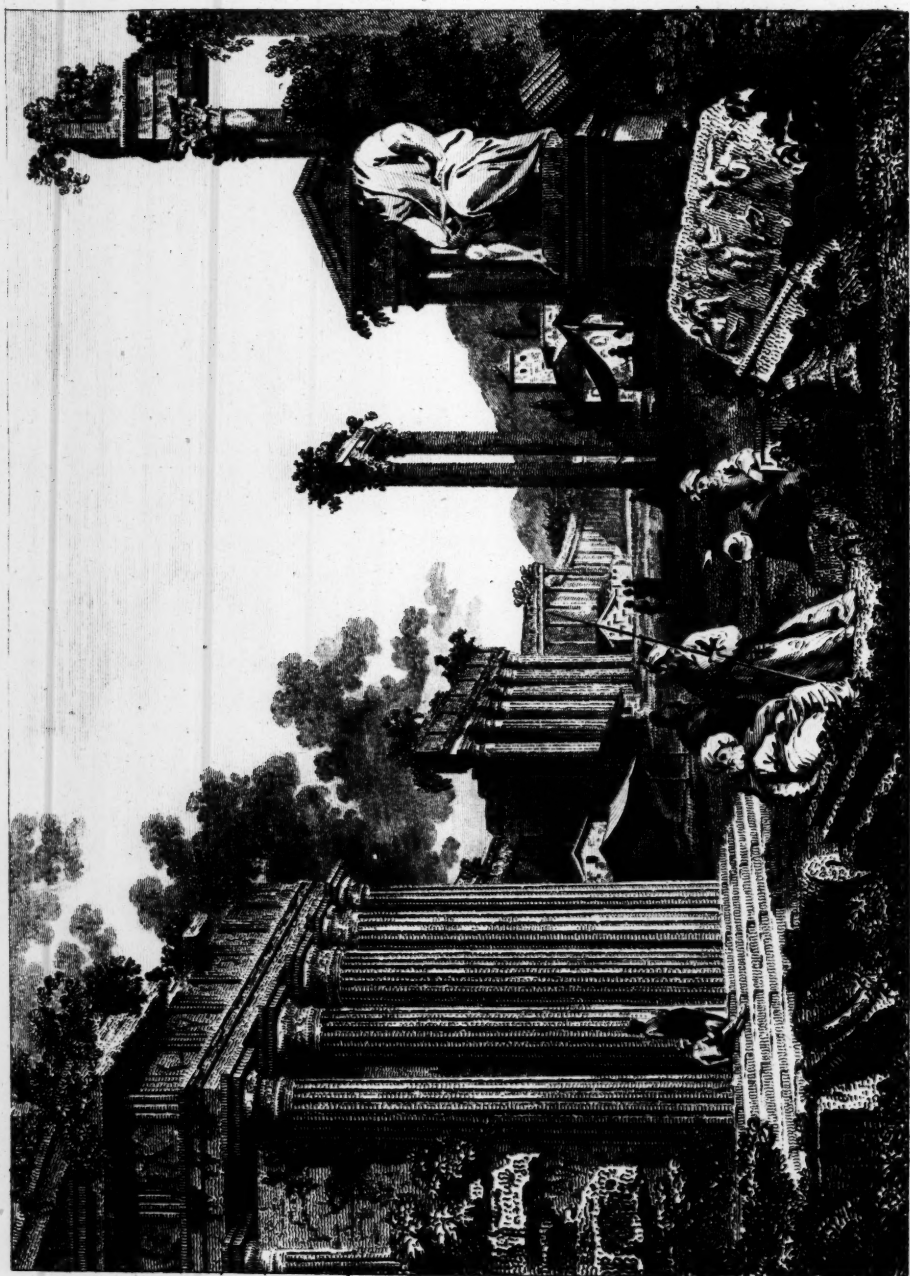
The Emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of oriental magnificence of expression. He is stiled by his subjects, 'The Shadow of God, A God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, and Disposer of all Earthly Crowns;' with other bombastical appellations. His arms are, Vert, a Crescent, Argent, crested with a Turban charged with three black Plumes of Herons Quills; with this motto, '*Donec totum impellat orbem.*'

When a new emperor is about to assume the dignity of the representative of Mahomet, he is usually conducted with great pomp and triumph to a place in the vicinity of Constantinople, where solemn prayers are made to God that he may prosper the Sultan, and infuse wisdom into him who is about to manage so great a charge. The Mufti then embracing him, bestows his blessing, and the emperor solemnly swears to maintain the laws of the prophet Mahomet. On this the viziers of the bench, and the other bashaws, with the most profound humility kiss the ground, and the hem of his robe, acknowledging him their lawful emperor; and, after this form of inauguration, he returns with similar pomp to his seraglio.

The cities and towns in this empire generally derive more consequence from their antiquity than from their modern splendor or opulence: we shall, however, give a description of the most remarkable.

Coron, one of the most considerable towns in the Morea, is situated on the south side of a gulph to which it gives name, about seventeen miles from Cape Gallo, and is extremely well fortified both by art and nature. It's figure is triangular; and, where not washed by the sea, is defended by a fortress encompassed with walls of immense thickness, and flanked with large towers. At a small distance is a suburb containing upwards of four hundred houses; but neither these, nor any edifices in the city, display much elegance or knowledge of architecture. The adjacent country, however, is abundantly fertile, producing plenty of fruit, corn, wine, oil, and silk, which the inhabitants export to great advantage.

Misitra, the ancient Sparta, the most beautiful city of the Morea, is situated on the River Eurotus; and consists of the city properly so called, two extensive suburbs, and a strong castle. The town stands at the foot of the castle, which covers it on the north, and contains many beautiful



North sculp.

West del.

RUINS OF ATHENS.

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beautiful remains of antiquity; particularly four magnificent marble fabrics, viz. the Persian Gallery, or portico, erected in memory of the victory gained by the Greeks at the battle of Plataea; the Temple of Helena; the Temple of Hercules; and the Temple of Venus. The cathedral is a noble pile, the roof of which is supported by marble pillars; it is furnished with seven domes, and the pavement is a very curious piece of mosaic work. This is the see of a Greek archbishop, who is styled Metropolitan, and who has a handsome and commodious palace, in which are lodgings for the dignitaries of the cathedral. Towards the south-east part of the town is a convent of nuns, whose church is remarkably elegant and superb. The Turks likewise have some stately mosques in this city; especially one in the suburbs, built out of the ruins of the ancient Sparta.

Misitra is supposed to contain about two thousand houses, and the suburbs nearly as many; but the latter are by far the finest, and therefore the most opulent inhabitants reside there, where they enjoy the advantage of very pleasant gardens.

Corinth, now known by the name of Gerame, was built at the foot of a very high rock, on which stands a castle commanding a most delightful prospect on every side. In ancient times it was distinguished as one of the finest cities in Greece, and abounded with the most magnificent palaces, temples, amphitheatres, monuments, baths, and other works, adorned with statues by the best masters of the art; and beautiful porticoes of columns, whose singular decorations and elegant capitals gave rise to the appellation of the Corinthian Order. But Time, the grand enemy of all sublunary beauty and grandeur, has laid all this magnificence in the dust; and the very spot on which Corinth stood, being filled up with fields and gardens, rather resembles a deserted village than a once magnificent city. The town, however, is still the see of a Greek archbishop, who resides in the cathedral, the only Christian church in the place. When the Russians made a descent on the Morea in 1770, they were unsuccessful in their attack on this city.

Athens, the ancient capital of Attica, to which the Turks have given the modern name of Setines, exclusive of its amazing power, opulence, and beauty, was distinguished for being the nursery of the most eminent philosophers, statesmen, orators, and generals, which the world ever produced. It was originally governed by its own kings, but afterwards fell under the dominion of the Persians, Macedonians, and Romans, successively. In latter times, it became subject to the Turks, from whom it was taken by the Venetians; and, after various revolutions, was at last secured in the possession of the Turks.

This city, though once justly celebrated for the magnificence of its buildings, is now destitute of walls; but all the avenues to it being shut by gates, they are a sufficient security against the corsairs who sometimes infest the coast. The houses are compactly built, but the streets are disagreeably narrow. The inhabitants are computed at eight or ten thousand, three parts of whom are Christians, and the rest Turks; for the Jews are totally excluded from having any intercourse with them.

In Athens and its vicinity are upwards of two hundred churches and chapels, fifty-two of which have their peculiar priests; the catholicon, or cathedral, however, is the only ecclesiastical edifice which possesses either beauty or magnificence; and, in both these respects, it falls greatly short of some ordinary parish-churches in other countries.

The Acropolis, or citadel commanding the town, is situated on the summit of a rock, very much elevated above the circumjacent plains. The top of the rock is flat, and about three quarters of a mile in circumference; to which there is almost a perpendicular ascent on all sides, except on the north-west; which in a manner renders this fortress impregnable.

Among the most celebrated antiquities of this once splendid city are the remains of the Temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and surrounded with forty-six fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and seven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with basso-relievos admirably executed, representing the Wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the above citadel are seventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, supposed to be the remains of the Emperor Adrian's palace; they are of the most beautiful white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and bases. Just within the city stands the Temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order; the portico at the west end is adorned with the Battle of Centaurs in basso-relievo; that at the opposite end appears to be a continuation of the same history; and on the external part of the porticos, in the spaces between the triglyphs, are represented the Feats of Theseus. On the west of the city is a very beautiful structure, called the Lanthorn of Demosthenes, a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the interstices of the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales. On the frieze are beautifully delineated, in relievo, the Labours of Hercules. Besides these, the Temple of the Winds, the Theatre of Bacchus, the magnificent aqueduct of the Emperor Adrian, the temples of Jupiter Olympus and Augustus, with many other noble piles in ruins, bear incontestible evidence of the ancient beauty and splendor of this city.

The Rivers Ilissus and Eridanus, which water the plain whereon Athens stands, are extremely inconsiderable; and, were it not for their ancient fame, would be entirely overlooked.

The ancient Eleufis and Thebes, formerly illustrious in history, are now reduced to paltry villages. The former, indeed, is almost destitute of inhabitants, though famous for the magnificent temple of Ceres, which excites the admiration of every traveller; but the latter scarcely bears a vestige of it's ancient grandeur, except in being an episcopal see.

Salonichi, the ancient Thessalonica, a celebrated trading town of Macedonia, is situated in 40 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 12 degrees 23 minutes east longitude; and is said to be ten miles in circumference. The walls are flanked by several towers; and defended by three castles, which command every accessible place. The city is extremely populous; and the inhabitants carry on an extensive trade in silk, wool, leather, wax, powder, grain, cotton, and iron. The Jews, who are very numerous, monopolize the most valuable manufactures; and in such a flourishing condition are these persevering people at Salonichi, that they have no less than thirty-six large synagogues; and two colleges, to which their youth flock from all parts.

The Greeks likewise have thirty churches; and the Turks forty-eight mosques, among which is a very beautiful one formerly a Christian church dedicated to St. Demetrius.

The remains of antiquity scattered over the whole extent of this great and opulent city are

are numerous and attractive: the most considerable, however, are triumphal arches; one of which, erected in honour of the Emperor Antoninus, is almost entire; and a variety of antique fragments of temples with legible inscriptions.

This city is the residence of a Turkish bashaw; and also of a Greek archbishop, who has eight suffragans under him. The Christians were formerly so considerable, that St. Paul addressed two of his epistles to them. In 1313 this city was sold to the Venetians; but they were dispossessed of it about eight years after by Amurath II.

Adrianople, one of the principal cities of Rumania, takes its name from the Emperor Adrian, its founder, or rather restorer. It was taken from the Christians in 1360, by Sultan Amurath I. from which time it became the seat of the Turkish government, till they gained possession of Constantinople. Its circumference is said to be eight miles; the houses in general are handsome, the walls and fortifications strong, but the streets narrow and irregular. The Seraglio enjoys a most delightful situation; and the Bazar, or Exchange, is a prodigious structure. But though the surrounding country is luxuriantly fertile and pleasant, the air is far from being healthful.

Among the mosques at Adrianople, that of Selim I. excites the admiration of every traveller. It is advantageously situated in the midst of the city, and on the most elevated ground, whence it has a fine prospect on every side. The exterior court has four gates, and the interior three; both being surrounded with cloisters supported by marble columns of the Ionic order finely polished, and of the most beautiful colours. The whole pavement is of white marble; and the roofs of the cloisters are divided into several cupolas, or domes, terminating in elegant gilt balls. In the centre of each court are fountains of white marble; and before the grand entrance of the mosque is a portico with columns of green marble, and five gates.

The celebrated Lady Mary Wortley Montague, who was, perhaps, the only Christian that ever entered this superb temple, allows it to be the most noble building she ever saw. On the inside it has two rows of galleries, supported by columns of red and white marble, with marble balustrades; and the pavement is also of marble, covered with the richest carpets of Persia. The walls are encrusted with Japan china, in flowers of the most vivid beauty. In the middle of this structure is suspended a silver lamp of immense magnitude, surrounded with two thousand of inferior dimensions; which, when lighted, have a most splendid effect. Under the great lamp is a large pulpit of carved wood, gilt; and, adjoining, a fountain for ablutions. In one corner is a little gallery inclosed with gilt lattices for the Sultan; and at the upper end is a large niche, resembling an altar, raised two steps, and covered with gold brocade. Before it stand two silver gilt candlesticks six feet high, in which are placed wax-candles at least three feet in circumference.

Constantinople, the ancient Byzantium, and the capital of the Ottoman Empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus, in 41 degrees north latitude, and 28 degrees 41 minutes east longitude; and was built by the Roman Emperor Constantine the Great, on the ruins of Byzantium, as being a more inviting situation for the seat of empire than Rome itself. It afterwards became the metropolis of the Greek or Eastern empire; and, having had

had the good fortune to escape the rage of ungoverned barbarism during the Gothic ages, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city of Europe, and the only one which retained any vestiges of the ancient elegance of manners, literature, or arts. While the seat of the Greek emperors, it was no less distinguished for beauty than opulence, being the only European mart for the precious commodities of the East. It likewise derived immense benefit from being the resort of the crusaders; and, being then in it's meridian glory, the writers of those ages always speak of it in terms of enthusiastic admiration.

Constantinople is at this time one of the finest cities in the world, both with respect to it's situation and it's port; from the latter of which it is frequently called, by way of eminence, only the *Porte*. The climate is extremely delightful, the air is moderate in winter, and the breezes temper the summer's heat; however, the pestilence frequently rages in a most alarming degree, sweeping the inhabitants by thousands into one undistinguished grave. But this cruel malady is by no means to be attributed either to the climate or the natural qualities of the air; but to the Turkish indolence, fatality, and filthiness, which not only pave the way for it, but in some measure render it endemial.

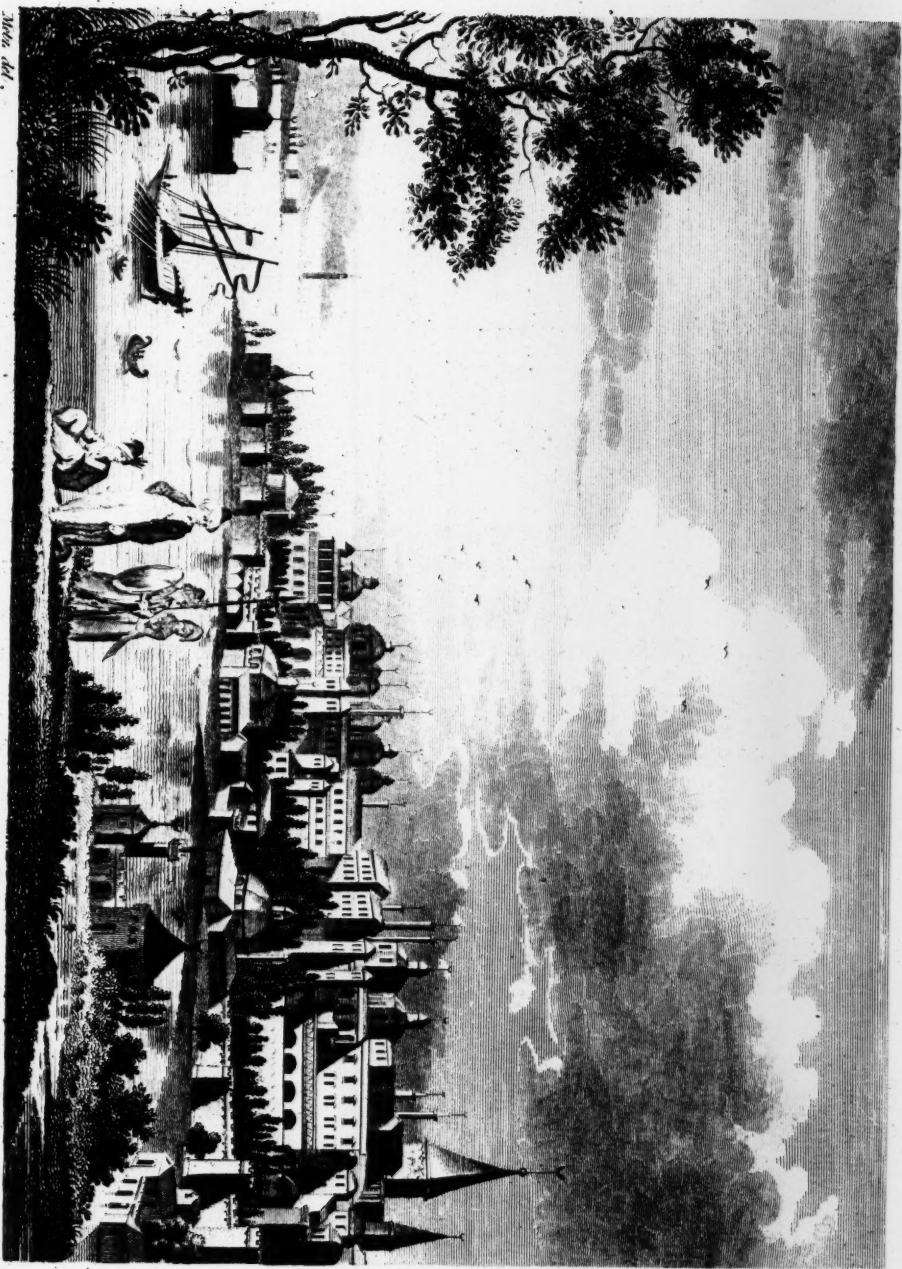
The city itself is of a triangular figure; the *Seraglio* standing on a point of one of it's angles, from whence there is a delightful prospect of the Lesser Asia; and, indeed, from almost every quarter of Constantinople, the views are uncommonly beautiful. To the north of the city lies the harbour, which is sufficiently extensive to contain a thousand ships, as well as to shelter them from every wind.

Like ancient Rome, Constantinople stands on seven hills; and makes a splendid appearance, rising gradually from the shore in form of an amphitheatre. The inequality of the buildings renders it much more extensive in appearance than it really is; exhibiting an agreeable intermixture of palaces, mosques, and other public edifices; gardens, pine and cypress trees, rising one above another in the most pleasing manner imaginable. The most advantageous prospect of the city, however, is from the Black Sea; for, internally viewed, the streets are narrow and slippery, the houses low and mean, and the inhabitants poor and wretched. Indeed, both it's magnitude and population have been exaggerated by credulous travellers; the best authors fixing the latter at no more than 800,000, of which three-fourths are said to be Greeks and Armenians.

The Castle of the Seven Towers, standing near the Sea of Marmora, is a very celebrated structure, in which delinquents of the highest rank are confined. On the outside are two large figures of white marble, in basso-relievo, and supposed to represent Endymion and Diana; also the Nine Muses; and the poetic horse Pegasus, executed by a capital master. Near this edifice is a square tower built in the sea, in which, it is supposed, Justinian imprisoned the brave but unfortunate Belisarius.

The *Seraglio* is an immense edifice, of a triangular figure, or rather a collection of palaces and apartments united together by the emperors, according to their different fancies. It is a mile and a half in circumference, surrounded by a strong wall furnished with several watch-towers, on which guard is kept both day and night; and though it has many gates both on the sea and land side, only that towards the sea is usually opened. By the principal gate, which the Turks call *Capi*, or the *Porte*, the first court is entered; in which are the

Mint,



VIEW OF THE SERAGLIO AT CONSTANTINOPLE.

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Mint, the Infirmary, and several other offices. The second court contains the Great Council Chamber, the Treasury, and the royal kitchen and stables; and is called the Divan Court. To the north, adjoining to the Divan, is the Seraglio, properly so called; through which is a narrow passage leading to the Audience-Chamber, a room magnificent beyond conception. Thus far **only** ambassadors are suffered to approach; and though some travellers pretend to have penetrated the apartments of the women, and to describe the bed-chambers of the Sultan, no foreigner was ever admitted into the inner part of the Seraglio; and, consequently, all the descriptions of it which have ever been obtruded on the public must have been the offspring of vanity and ignorance.

The gardens of the Seraglio, which occupy a large extent of ground, are full of cypress-trees. The whole collection of buildings is adorned with gilt turrets and spires, which have a very magnificent appearance; and it has even been asserted, that no palace of any Christian king can equal it, either in size or grandeur.

The next most remarkable structure is the Mosque of St. Sophia, formerly a Christian church, built in the sixth century by the Emperor Justinian. It is a most splendid edifice, the dome being an hundred and thirteen feet in diameter, built on arches supported by vast pillars of marble; and the pavement and stair-cases are likewise of the same beautiful and durable materials. This structure contains the tomb of the Emperor Constantine, which is held in the highest veneration; but such are the narrow prejudices of bigotry and superstition, that strangers are not admitted to see it without the utmost difficulty. Though the mosque of St. Sophia is represented as the most magnificent in Constantinople, there are others which have an appearance of superior beauty. That of Sultan Solymán is a perfect square, with four fine angular towers. In the centre is a noble cupola, supported by fine marble pillars; and under it a fountain constructed with uncommon elegance. On one side is the pulpit, of white marble; and, on the other, a small gallery for the Sultan, to which there is an ascent by a fine stair-case adorned with gilt lattices. At the upper end is a sort of altar, on which the holy name of God is written; and before it stand two candlesticks of vast dimensions. The pavement is spread with fine carpets, and the whole mosque illuminated with a number of lamps. The exterior court, which is very spacious, is surrounded with galleries supported by columns of green marble; and, on two sides, crowned with twenty-eight cupolas, with a beautiful fountain in the centre. In this, as well as every other mosque in Constantinople, are little chapels, containing the tombs of the founders and their families; before which wax-candles are kept continually burning.

The models of all the mosques in Constantinople are nearly the same: the only real difference consists in their dimensions, and the richness of the materials of which they are constructed. That of the Sultana Vida, built entirely of marble, is by far the largest.

The Greeks have thirty churches, and the Armenians nearly as many. The Roman Catholics have also several; and the Swedes have been indulged with permission to build one, in which divine service is performed according to the Lutheran establishment. The Greek patriarch resides in a stately palace, standing on a hill about two hundred paces from the patriarchal church of St. George.

The exchanges, squares, and other public buildings in Constantinople, are large and commodious; and, of all the remains of antiquity capable of being traced within the walls, and in the vicinity, the aqueducts are the most perfect, as well as the most beneficial.

That warlike and hardy race of men who inhabited the vast country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Turkey, has at different periods over-run the more southern and fertile parts of Asia. One tribe of these people, distinguished by the appellation of Turks, or Turcomans, (a name signifying Wanderers) extended it's conquests under various leaders; and, during several ages, from the shore of the Caspian Sea to the straits of the Dardanelles. Having been long resident, in the capacity of body-guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrines of Mahomet, and served chiefly as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their principal abode was in the vicinity of Mount Caucasus, from whence they emigrated to Armenia Major; and, after being employed by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom, and spread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Their religion binding them to promulge the doctrines of Mahomet by every possible means, they were always furnished with a pretext for invading and pillaging the dominions of the Greek emperors; and sometimes had the good fortune to be headed by commanders of the most consummate skill and abilities. On the declension of the caliphate, or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the Christians at that time deeming it a part of their religious exercises to visit the holy city of Jerusalem, in which they were tolerated by the Saracens; the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such inhuman cruelties on the Christian natives of the country, that the different nations of Europe vied with each other in retorting vengeance on those unprincipled plunderers: which circumstances gave rise to the famous crusades, so much celebrated in history. Unfortunately for the Greek emperors, they appeared more jealous of the progress of the Christians than of that of the Turks; and though, after a prodigious effusion of human blood, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were invested with sufficient power, nor properly supported, to enable them to maintain the dignity they had assumed.

About the year 1347, the Turks, under Othman, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves of some of the finest provinces of Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia; which last Othman made his capital; and having in a manner embodied them into a nation, they assumed the name of Othmans from their leader, the appellation of Turks being considered as a term of reproach.

A race of the most warlike princes recorded in history succeeded Othman; who not only defended, but considerably enlarged, the Turkish dominions. Having passed the Hellespont about the year 1357, they obtained footing in Europe; and Amurath transferred the seat of empire to Adrianople. Such amazing success attended their arms, that Bajazet I. after defeating the Greek Emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjugating the whole Greek empire; but his insolence in the exercise of power provoking Tamerlane, who was just returned from his eastern conquests, to wage war with him, a decisive battle was

was soon fought between these rival conquerors in the plain where Pompey the Great defeated Mithridates, in which Bajazet's army was routed with prodigious slaughter, and himself taken prisoner. The successors of Tamerlane, however, not having policy sufficient to preserve the advantages his prowess had acquired them, fell into intestine commotions and jealousies, while the Turks seemed to rise superior to their defeat: and though their career was somewhat impeded by the Venetians and Hungarians, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; till, after a long siege, Constantinople fell into the hands of Mahomet II. in the year 1453.

Thus, after an existence of a thousand years from its commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire: an event which had been long foreseen, and which originated from several concurring causes; the chief of which were, the total degeneracy of the emperors themselves, their courts, and their families; and the aversion their subjects entertained against the Popes and the Western Church; one of their patriarchs having publicly declared to a Roman legate, that he would rather see a turban than the Pope's tiara on the great altar of Constantinople. The Turks, however, while they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but only reduced the natives to subjection: and hence the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, particularly in Constantinople and the neighbouring islands; where, though exposed to the most intolerable exactions, they are permitted to profess Christianity, and to nominate their own patriarchs.

The conquest of Constantinople was soon after followed by the submission of all Greece; and from this æra the Turks have always been regarded as an European power. Mahomet II. dying in 1481, was succeeded by Bajazet II. who waged war against the Venetians and Hungarians, as well as the Persians and Egyptians. But Bajazet, after a series of wars, falling ill of the gout, and becoming indolent through bodily infirmities, was at last poisoned by a Jew physician, instigated, as is generally believed, by Selim, his second son. This inhuman wretch, now liberated from his father's controul, soon found means to strangle his elder brother Achmet, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians, together with a prince who governed Mount Taurus and its vicinity: but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt; which, after a series of bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, together with Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tripoli, and many other important towns.

Solyman, his son, surnamed the Magnificent, succeeded him in 1520; who, availing himself of the differences subsisting among the European powers, got possession of Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta, which was conferred upon them by the Emperor Charles V. Solyman, during his whole reign, was engaged in perpetual wars with the Christian powers, in which success generally crowned his exertions, though he miscaried in a precipitate attempt on the Isle of Malta. Solyman, esteemed one of the most heroic and greatest princes who ever swayed the Turkish sceptre, died in 1566, leaving his son Selim II. his successor.

During this reign, the Turkish marine received an almost irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto; who, had they prosecuted the advantage so fairly gained, the Othman power would have been in danger of utter annihilation. Selim, however, took Cyprus

Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis from the Moors: but, dying in 1575, he was succeeded by Amurath; who, after having obtained several advantages over the Persians and Hungarians, also departed this life in 1593.

On the demise of Amurath, Mahomet III. mounted the throne: a prince of infamous memory, on account of his brutality in having ordered nineteen of his brothers to be strangled; and ten of his father's concubines, then judged pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He carried on many wars, with indifferent success, against the Christians, and fell a victim to the plague in 1604. His successors were either weak or unfortunate princes, their reigns being only marked with calamity, and their exits unhappy; till Mahomet IV. ascended the throne in 1648, who was so well served by his grand vizier Cuperli, that he took Candia from the Venetians, which had sustained a thirty years siege. This conquest cost the Turks the amazing number of 180,000 men; and the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Othmans; in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna itself; and would in all probability have carried it, had not the illustrious John Sobieski of Poland, and other Christian generals, raised the siege.

Mahomet, in 1687, becoming unpopular, was shut up in prison by his subjects; and his brother Solyman II. was called to the exercise of sovereign power. During this reign, and that of Achmet II. the Turks continued unfortunate in their wars; but Mustapha II. mounting the throne in 1694, commanded his armies in person, and performed several brilliant exploits, though he was at last defeated by the superior bravery of Prince Eugene, and the peace of Carlowitz, concluded in 1699, terminated the dispute. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed; and his musti, or high-priest, beheaded: on which his brother Achmet mounted the throne, who gave shelter at Bender to the heroic Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians by a glorious peace, concluded at Pruth. He afterwards waged war against the Venetians, and thereby alarmed all the Christian powers; the scene of action, however, was afterwards translated to Hungary, where the Imperial general, Prince Eugene, gave the Infidels so many signal defeats, that they were under the necessity of acceding to the most disgraceful terms of peace in 1718. These humiliations were succeeded by an unfortunate war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan; and misfortune still attending the Turkish arms, the populace became so exasperated, that they demanded the heads of the grand vizier, the chief admiral, and the secretary; which sacrifice was immediately complied with. Achmet himself was also deposed, and Mahomet IV. advanced to the sovereignty. A train of ill success attended the arms of this last monarch against the Persians; and he was at last obliged to acknowledge the usurper Kouli Khan as King of Persia. He was afterwards engaged in wars with the Germans and Russians, in which he had very indifferent success; and, dying in 1754, left the empire to his brother Osman III. who reigned only three years. Osman was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III. who carried on a long and ruinous war against the Russians, the circumstances of which are too recent to be here insisted on. He died in 1774, while disaster and defeat were presenting themselves on every hand; and, a few months after the accession of the present Grand Signior Achmet IV. a peace was concluded between the belligerent nations. At the time of the late Emperor Mustapha's

Mustapha's demise, he left a son about thirteen years of age; who being too young to manage the reins of government at that critical juncture, Mustapha appointed his brother, the present emperor, to succeed him, recommending the care of his infant son in terms of the most implicit confidence and sincere affection.

Since that period the Othman Empire has experienced but few revolutions: it has, indeed, lately made a considerable sacrifice to Russia, purposely to evade another war with that power; but this does not seem likely to affect the splendor of the crown. Indeed, the natural perseverance of the Turks; the military institution of the Janizaries; and, above all, the jealousies which continually actuate the European princes; are all concurring causes which must operate in favour of the existence of this empire. Were the Christian powers unanimous, these haughty Infidels might soon be rendered incapable of opposing their progress; but while the present system continues for preserving what is called the balance of power, the Turks have little to fear from their enemies, as they will always find some European allies stimulated, either by jealousy or interest, to protect them.

Certain it is, that the accession of such Turkish territory as lies contiguous to the European seas would be highly advantageous to very formidable neighbours, who have no other compleat opportunity of becoming great maritime powers; and, as the utmost increase of naval force seems to be the general system among the several enlightened nations of the universe, speculative politicians have long prognosticated a disturbance of that tranquillity which at present prevails throughout the continent.

BOOK VI.

EUROPEAN ISLANDS.

CHAP. I.

GREAT BRITAIN.

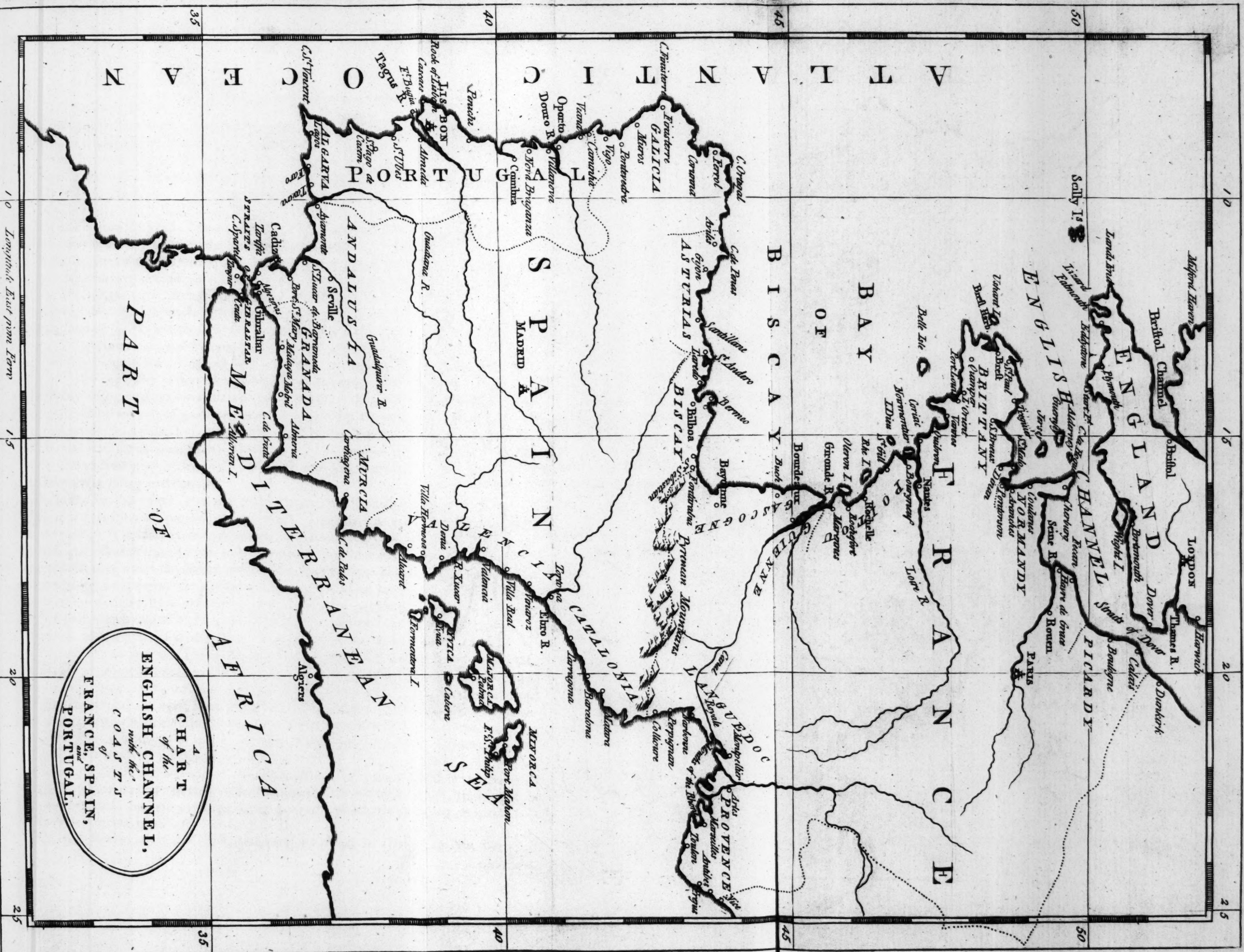
GREAT BRITAIN, the largest, most populous, rich, and fertile island, in Europe, (and which includes England, Scotland, and Wales) is of a triangular form; the Land's End, Dover Head, and Caithness, shooting out into distinct promontories, and forming the three corners. The surrounding waters, its natural bulwark, have obtained different names adapted to the several coasts: on the north, is the Northern Sea; on the east, the German Ocean; on the south, the British Channel; and, on the west, the Irish Sea, or St. George's Channel. Great Britain lies between 50 and 58 degrees 30 minutes north latitude; and is generally reckoned five hundred and eighty-seven miles long, and two hundred and eighty-seven broad.

Contrary to the method of modern geographical writers, who expatiate most largely, because with most facility, on those places with which their readers are best acquainted; and hurry over countries, a minute description of which would be interesting, because but little known: we shall content ourselves with such a general description of this our native island, as may render it strictly uniform with the other parts of our work; preserving, however, the usual divisions, and treating of England, Wales, and Scotland, successively.

England, lying between 50 and 56 degrees north latitude, and between 2 degrees east and 6 degrees 20 minutes west longitude, is bounded on the north by that part of the island called Scotland; on the east, by the German Ocean; on the west, by St. George's Channel; and, on the south, by the English Channel, which divides it from France.

Being washed by the sea on three sides, the weather is thereby rendered so extremely fluctuating, that the inhabitants of the sea-coasts are often visited by agues and fevers: but, on the other hand, their situation shelters them from the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places under the same degrees of latitude are exposed, and is therefore friendly to the longevity of the natives in general.

The etymology of the word England has furnished abundant matter for disputation among antiquaries; however, it was probably derived from Anglen, a province subject to his Danish majesty, which produced a great number of the original Saxon adventurers who settled in this part of the island. From the earliest ages, the whole island was distinguished by the name of Britannia; a name supposed to be derived from Brit, signifying Painted or Stained; because the ancient inhabitants painted their bodies, to give them a more martial appearance. But, not to amuse our readers with idle or fanciful etymologies, we shall only observe,



serve, that the western tract, called Wales, which is almost separated from the rest of England by the Rivers Severn and Dee, is peopled by the descendants of the ancient Britons, who were driven thither by the Romans when England was first provinciated.

When the Romans became masters of this country, they divided it into *Britannia Prima*, including the southern parts of the kingdom; *Britannia Secunda*, comprehending the western parts, together with Wales; and *Maxima Caesariensis*, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the Wall of Severus between Newcastle and Carlisle, and in some parts as far as that of Adrian between the Forth and the Clyde.

On the decline of the Roman empire, about the year 450, England was invaded by the Saxons; who having completely established their power in the year 582, their principal leaders appropriated to themselves the countries which each had been most instrumental in conquering; forming the whole into a heptarchy, or political republic, which consisted of the kingdoms of Kent, and those of the South Saxons, East Angles, West Saxons, East Saxons; Northumberland, and Mercia.

Alfred the Great divided England into counties; or, rather, he revived those distinctions: and, for the better preservation of regularity and order, that wise prince subdivided each county into tithings, or trithings; wapentakes, or hundreds; and tithings: a tithing being the third part of a county; a hundred, a district containing an hundred families; and a tithing, a district of ten families. Since the Norman conquest, England has been divided into six circuits, each containing a certain number of counties; and, for the regular administration of justice in these circuits, two judges are appointed for each, who visit them every spring and autumn.

The soil of England varies in almost every county; not so much, indeed, from the nature of the ground, as from the progress of cultivation. England, however, is abundantly fertile in every part; and produces corn enough, not only for internal consumption, but for foreign exportation. One favourable year is sufficient to supply three years of plenty to the inhabitants; and, even when the seasons prove unfavourable, there is generally a competency. Hence nothing can prevent the abundance which Providence has graciously poured down on this happy country from answering the most salutary purposes, but that immoderate thirst of gain which excites the avaricious to export, monopolize, or distil such quantities of grain, as to breed an artificial famine. England abounds likewise in the choicest esculent vegetables and fruits. The kitchen-gardens are well stocked with every plant and root proper for domestic use; and the orchards and gardens produce plenty of apples, pears, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, plums, grapes, raspberries, strawberries, currants, and other grateful fruits. It must, however, be confessed, that some of the English fruits never acquire that flavour which distinguishes those in warmer climates; though with respect to cyder and perry, England is as much superior to France and Italy, as those countries are to England in the production of generous wines.

This country is in general level and champain, and agreeably diversified with hills and eminences, which have a very pleasing effect; though, in traversing England, strangers meet with few of those sublime and captivating prospects which the amazing mountains of Wales and Scotland incessantly afford.

The most famous mountains in England are, the Peak, in Derbyshire; the Endle, in Lancashire;

Lancashire; the Wolds, in Yorkshire; the Cheviot Hills, on the borders of Scotland; the Chiltern, in Bucks; the Malvern, in Worcestershire; and the Wrekin, in Shropshire.

The English rivers contribute as well to the beauty as to the opulence of the country. The Thames, perhaps the noblest in the known world, rises on the confines of Gloucestershire; and, after visiting several rich and beautiful towns in its course, reaches London, from which it is navigable for the largest ships till it falls into the German Sea at the Nore. The Medway, rising near Tunbridge, falls into the mouth of the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river in England for importance, and the first for rapidity, issues from Plinlimmon Hill, in North Wales, and discharges itself into the Bristol Channel near King Road. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and falls into the sea a little to the south-east of Hull, where it obtains the name of the Humber. The other principal rivers in England are, the Ouse, the Tyne, the Tees, the Tweed, the Eden, the Avon, the Derwent, the Ribble, the Mersey, and the Dee.

The English lakes are but few; though it is evident, from history and antiquity, that meres and fens have been very frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land by the hand of industry. The chief now remaining are Soham Mere, Wittlesea Mere, and Ramsay Mere, in the Isle of Ely; Winander Mere, in Westmoreland; and some small lakes in Lancashire, which are usually distinguished by the name of Derwent Waters.

England is every where admirably furnished with excellent harbours, bays, and havens; which greatly facilitate the purposes of commerce, and justly secure to it the title of Mistress of the Seas.

Formerly this kingdom was in a great measure covered with forests; the first Norman kings, partly to gratify the insolence of power, and partly for the benefit of hunting, having devoted immense tracts to that purpose. By degrees, however, these extensive tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, now remaining, out of no fewer than sixty-nine, are Windsor Forest, New Forest, the Forest of Dean, Sherwood Forest, and that of Whichwood. These forests anciently produced immense quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech; besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. But timber is now become less plentiful; and, though the navy requires a constant supply, and no wood equals the oak of this country for shipbuilding, government have unaccountably neglected to encourage the growth of that necessary article.

The English pastures are excellent, and feed an immense number of cattle. But though the oxen are the largest and best in the world, their use in agriculture is very much neglected. Breeding of sheep is an article of capital advantage; and it is computed that no fewer than twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually, the working of which amounts to near a fifth of the whole revenues of the country. The English horses, both for the chace and saddle, are very beautiful, and extremely well proportioned: those of the cavalry are remarkable for their size, strength, and spirit; and even such as are trained to more domestic purposes are almost unrivalled for their beauty and swiftness. Indeed, incredible pains are taken by all ranks for the improvement of the breed; and the success has certainly been equal to the trouble, since all the qualities and beauties of the Indian, Persian, Arabian, Spanish, and other foreign horses, are now united in this useful and noble animal. Those employed
in

in drawing the splendid equipages of our nobility and gentry, often cost from five hundred to a thousand guineas the set. The exportation of horses to France has lately become a lucrative article of commerce, the most extravagant prices being frequently paid by that ostentatious people for some of the English racers. It is observable, however, that the breed degenerates when transported into another soil. Whether the change of climate is unfavourable to them, or the mode of feeding them less generous, may perhaps in many cases be difficult to determine: and, indeed, the same observations have been made respecting the English mastiff and bull-dogs, which in their native land are the fiercest of the canine species; but, when transported to foreign countries, lose much of their original spirit.

The English game-cocks, which form a barbarous amusement for uncultivated minds, may likewise be ranked among the most courageous creatures in the universe, frequently fighting, with artificial spurs of pointed steel, till both the combatants expire at the same instant. Their blood and pedigrees are particularly regarded by those who delight in such savage diversions; and bets of many thousand pounds often depend on the event of a single cruel contest.

Though few species of game are peculiar to England, the country is by no means ill supplied with that article.

The legal restrictions, however, which by moderate people have always been deemed inimical to public liberty, put the pleasures of the field in the power only of the wealthy, deprive the peasant of what the land he cultivates is obliged to support, and render poaching, that enemy to every public and private virtue, in some measure unavoidable.

The rivers and ponds of England contain a variety of the most exquisite fish; and the shores swarm with inconceivable numbers of cod, mackarel, haddock, whittings, herrings, pilchards, skates, soles, and many other species. The English, however, have been with great justice accused of neglecting their natural wealth, in not paying more attention to their fisheries; which, if properly pursued, would open an inexhaustible source of riches and naval strength.

Besides the vegetable productions already enumerated, this country affords woad, saffron, hops, hemp, flax, and various other plants and roots equally beneficial in domestic use and foreign traffic.

Among English minerals, the Cornish tin-mines claim a deserved preference. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before the Christian æra; and, since the natives have discovered the method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, they prove of immense national advantage. An ore, called mundic, is likewise found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till within the last century, when the art of manufacturing it was discovered; and it is now said to bring in upwards of 150,000*l.* a year, and to equal the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris. These tin-works are subject to peculiar regulations called the *Stannary Laws*; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own. Some gold has been discovered in Cornwall; and the lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly distinguished by being charged with Roses, and that of Wales by the Prince's Cap of Feathers. Devonshire, and some other counties, produce marble; but the best kind, resembling Egyptian granite, is extremely hard, and difficult to work. North-

umberland and Cheshire yield allum and salt-pits. Fuller's earth seems peculiar to this country; free-stone quarries abound in almost every province; and no nation is better supplied with coals; this last article, besides the internal consumption, forming a valuable article of foreign commerce.

All calculations respecting the population of countries must be extremely fallible; but particularly so when applied to England, on account of the prodigious influx of foreigners, and the frequent emigrations of the natives. However, the number of inhabitants in England and Wales, notwithstanding the prodigious effusion of human blood occasioned by the late unhappy war, can hardly amount to less than seven millions.

The English are generally fair and florid in their complexions, regular in their features, and well proportioned in their persons. The women, in their shapes, features, and complexions, appear so engaging, that England may be justly termed the native land of female beauty. But, besides the external graces so peculiar to the English women, they are still more to be prized for their prudence, cleanliness, and warm attachment to their husbands and children.

Englishmen have always been allowed to possess a considerable share of personal bravery; and the enthusiasm of liberty may be said to pervade almost every breast. They are also reputed to be more industrious than any other people, capable of bearing the greatest fatigue, and lovers of the liberal arts; but attached to their native country with a zeal which has too often the appearance of a supercilious barbarism. They are, however, in general, humane, social, and benevolent; though unacquainted with those arts which attract the esteem of strangers at the first glance: this want of fashionable complaisance probably arises from a national pride, which teaches every man to consider himself as an independent being, and admits of no distinctions. But there seems, at present, some reason to apprehend that this blunt sincerity of manners which has usually distinguished the English nation will soon be totally extinct, at least among the higher ranks; and that the more disgusting round of unmeaning compliments, in which a neighbouring nation so much excels, will be substituted in its place. The English, however, having been originally an assemblage of various nations, there is not that dull uniformity of character among them which is found in most other countries; but, on the contrary, the greatest diversity appears in their manners and dispositions, which serves to enliven conversation, and to render society delightful.

The inhabitants of the several parts of this country are descended from different originals. Those of Cornwall and Wales are in general the posterity of the ancient Britons; who, on the invasion of the Picts and Saxons, retired to those districts, where the mountains formed a natural bulwark against the incursions of their enemies; and there they have continued ever since. The Scotch are likewise blended with the Picts, particularly in the Low Lands, which they possessed before the latter had totally subdued them; and the Highlands are conjectured to have received a considerable number of their original possessors from Ireland.

The ancient language of this island is generally supposed to have been the same with that of Gaul; the whole country, according to Cæsar and Tacitus, having been first peopled from Gallia: and, indeed, the vicinity of their situation, together with their original conformity in religion, manners, and customs, give the highest degree of probability to the opinions of these respectable authorities. The ancient British tongue, however, is almost totally



THE TOMB OF HENRY THE THIRD,
Westminster Abbey.

tally lost, except in Wales, and the Highlands and Islands of Scotland. Some years before the Christian æra, Julius Cæsar made a descent on Britain, though he may be said to have discovered rather than conquered it: but about the 45th year of Christ, and in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, Aulus Plautius was sent over into Britain with some Roman legions; by whom Cadigunus and the illustrious Caractacus being overcome in battle, a Roman colony was first planted at Malden, in Essex, and the southern parts of the island were reduced to the form of a Roman province. After this, the Romans extended their conquests on every side; and the Aborigines retreating from servitude, took shelter in the mountainous country of Wales, carrying their native language with them.

Thus, the greatest part of Britain becoming provinciated, the Roman legions, which resided in it upwards of two hundred years, unquestionably disseminated the Latin tongue; and the natives, being governed by laws written in that language, must necessarily have introduced a mixture of dialects. The British tongue thus remained blended with the provincial Latin till the Roman legions were recalled, when the Scots and Picts embraced that opportunity to attack and harass England: on which King Vortigern, about the year 1440, called in the Saxons to his assistance, who repulsed the Picts and Scots; and, for this service, were rewarded with the Isle of Thanet and the whole county of Kent: but, growing too powerful, they subdued the country they had delivered; when the Britons again took shelter in the mountains of Wales; and thus the original British tongue was almost entirely obliterated, and the Saxon introduced in its stead.

The Danes, having invaded England about the commencement of the ninth century, gradually increased their power; and, about two hundred years after, became sole masters of it. This gave a tincture, not only to the language, but the manners of the people. However, the Danes having been soon expelled, the Saxons again recovered possession of the supreme power, which they retained till the memorable revolution effected in 1067 by William the Conqueror: after which, the Norman tongue was generally received, with an admixture of Latin, Saxon, and Danish terms.

The extension of commerce, and the diffusion of literature, have likewise essentially contributed to the extinction of the ancient British tongue, and to the substitution of the present comprehensive language in its stead. Derived, like the natives, from very different origins, the English tongue is perhaps the most copious, significant, fluent, and manly, of any in Europe. In every species of composition, its graces are capable of being displayed with the utmost lustre; and we may safely assert, that it never can be carried far beyond the present standard of perfection.

Several of the most ancient Christian writers affirm, that the Apostles and their disciples promulgated the doctrine of Christ in this island. On the origin and decline of the papal authority in England, it will be unnecessary to enlarge; suffice it to remark, that John Wickliffe, an Englishman, in the reign of Henry III. was the first person in Europe who openly and boldly refuted the Romish tenets; and that the established religion in England had its rise under Henry VIII. which religion, as reformed from the errors of popery, is equally removed from superstition and bigotry, and seems to approach as near as possible to the primitive Christianity. The constitution of the Church is Episcopal; and is governed

governed by two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops; besides the Bishop of Sodor and Man, who, not being possessed of an English barony, is not honoured with a seat in the House of Peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but, in many places, their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The œconomy of the Church of England has been frequently called in question, on account of the inequality of its livings: some of them being infinitely too small to maintain the clerical dignity; while others are so large as to lead their possessors into an extravagant ostentation, which the simplicity of Christianity does not authorize in its immediate professors. Imperfections, however, will ever be found in the best human establishments; and though reformation has often been pointed out with a considerable share of plausibility, it is difficult to determine how far they might avail in practice. Both in civil and religious concerns, innovations are extremely dangerous: the vulgar lose their veneration for institutions which have once been deemed fundamentally wrong; and the spirit of innovation, when once thoroughly raised, generally exceeds the bounds which sense and reason would prescribe. It must, however, be allowed by all parties, that some of the dignitaries of the Church of England, deans and prebends in particular, have incomes very disproportionate to their functions: and probably it might be difficult to point out the real utility of this favoured order of men, who bask in the sunshine of affluence, without having any spiritual charge; while the inferior labourers in the vineyard struggle hard with poverty, and are too often despised for that penury which humanity teaches us to commiserate.

Ever since the reign of Henry VIII. the sovereigns of England have been stiled, in all public acts, the supreme heads of the church: but this title conveys no spiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power to prevent any ecclesiastical dissensions; or, in other words, to substitute the King in the place usurped by the Pope before the Reformation, with regard to temporalities and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England, however, never interfere in religious disputes; but content themselves with merely giving their sanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The two archbishops, which are those of Canterbury and York, are both dignified with the address of 'Your Grace.' The former is first peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the English church; and takes precedence next to the royal family: the latter likewise takes place of all dukes not of the blood-royal; and of all officers of state, the Lord Chancellor alone excepted.

The bishops are addressed by the appellation of 'Your Lordships,' and take place of all temporal barons. They enjoy the privileges of peers; and several of their bishoprics have revenues equal to the full support of their dignity, without any additional private fortune, or other ecclesiastical preferment.

The ecclesiastical government of England is, properly speaking, vested in the Convocation; which is a national synod, and answers pretty nearly to the idea we affix to a parliament. This assembly is convoked with every new parliament; and its business is to consider the state of the church, and to call clerical delinquents to account: but some high-flying churchmen having attempted, in the reign of Queen Anne, and at the commencement of that of George I. to raise the powers of the Convocation to a height inconsistent with the principles of religious toleration, the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of convoking the

the members, and dissolving them at pleasure; and, since that time, they have never been permitted to sit long enough to deliberate on any affairs of importance.

The Court of Arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury; and all appeals in church-matters, from the decisions of subordinate courts, are addressed to this. The Court of Audience possesses the same authority; to which the Archbishop's Chancery was formerly annexed. The Prerogative Court is that wherein wills are proved, and administrations taken out. The Court of Peculiars relates to certain parishes which have a jurisdiction among themselves for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the Bishop's Court. Under the see of Canterbury are no less than fifteen of these peculiars. The Court of Delegates receives its name from being composed of commissioners delegated by the royal commission, but is no standing court. Every bishop has also a court of his own, called the Consistory Court; and every archdeacon, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral, have their respective courts.

Moderation is the leading feature of the Church of England; and it is unquestionably tolerant beyond any other national church; no religious sect being prohibited from worshipping God in the manner prescribed by their own consciences. Some very severe laws, indeed, lately existed against Dissenters and Roman Catholics: but these were never put in execution with any degree of asperity; and are now either totally repealed, or so modified as to give no offence to conscientious Christians of any denomination.

No country in the world contains more sectaries than England; which is the strongest proof of the tolerancy of the ecclesiastical government, and that spirit of liberal enquiry which has pervaded all ranks. Besides the Episcopalians, or those of the established church, there are Presbyterians, Anabaptists, Methodists, Quakers, and many others: but the zeal with which these dissenters from the established modes of worship formerly propagated and maintained their tenets, is now in a great measure lost; and many of the sectaries have so far deviated from the purity to which they pretend, that they are even grossly ignorant of the leading tenets of their own communities.

England may justly be regarded as the modern residence of learning and the muses. Even in the Saxon ages, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe, Alfred cherished both: nor has there been wanting, since that æra, a succession of learned men, who have distinguished themselves in every branch of literature. Indeed, the bare recital of their names, from the first dawn of science to the present time, would exceed the bounds of any general work.

The English institutions for the benefit of study partake of the character of their learning; they are solid and substantial, and provide for the ease and convenience of the professors, beyond any similar establishments. The two universities of Oxford and Cambridge have produced more learned men than any other seminaries in Europe; and, in point of magnificence, rich endowments, and the liberal ease and tranquillity in which the students live, surpasses all ideas which foreigners can form of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to the British parliament; and their chancellors and officers have always a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to se-

cure their independency. The colleges, taken separately, in their revenues and buildings, are superior to some European universities.

Oxford contains nineteen colleges; besides five unendowed halls, in which the students chiefly support themselves.

University College, founded, as is generally supposed, by Alfred the Great.

Baliol College, founded by Sir John Baliol, father to the King of Scotland of that name, in 1263.

Merton College, founded by Walter of Merton, Bishop of Rochester and High Chancellor of England, in 1267.

Exeter College, founded by Walter Stapleton, Bishop of Exeter and Lord Treasurer of England, in 1316.

Oriel College, founded by Edward II. in 1324.

Queen's College, founded by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to Queen Philippa, consort to Edward III. and dedicated to her honour, in 1340.

New College, founded by William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, in 1386; but finished by Thomas de Rotherham, Archbishop of York, in 1475.

All Souls College, founded by Henry Chicheley, Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1437.

Magdalen College, founded by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, Bishop of Winchester, and Lord Chancellor, in 1458.

Brazen Nose College, founded by William Smith, Bishop of Lincoln, in 1509.

Corpus Christi College, founded by Richard Fox, Bishop of Winchester, in 1516.

Christ Church College, founded by Cardinal Wolsey, in 1515.

Trinity College, founded by Sir Thomas Pope, in 1554.

St. John Baptist College, founded by Sir Thomas White, Lord-mayor of London, in 1555.

Jesus College, founded by Dr. Hugh Price, Prebendary of Rochester, and chiefly appropriated to the Welch, in 1571.

Wadham College, founded by Nicholas Wadham, of Somersetshire, Esq. in 1609; but finished after his demise by his lady, in 1613.

Pembroke College, founded by Thomas Tisdale, Esq. and Richard Wrightwick, B. D. in 1624.

Worcester College, founded by Sir Thomas Cooke, of Aftley, in Worcestershire, in 1714.

Hertford College, formerly Hart Hall, erected into a college in 1740.

The five halls are, Alban Hall—Edmund Hall—St. Mary's Hall—New Inn Hall—and St. Mary Magdalen's Hall.

The university of Cambridge contains the following colleges and halls—

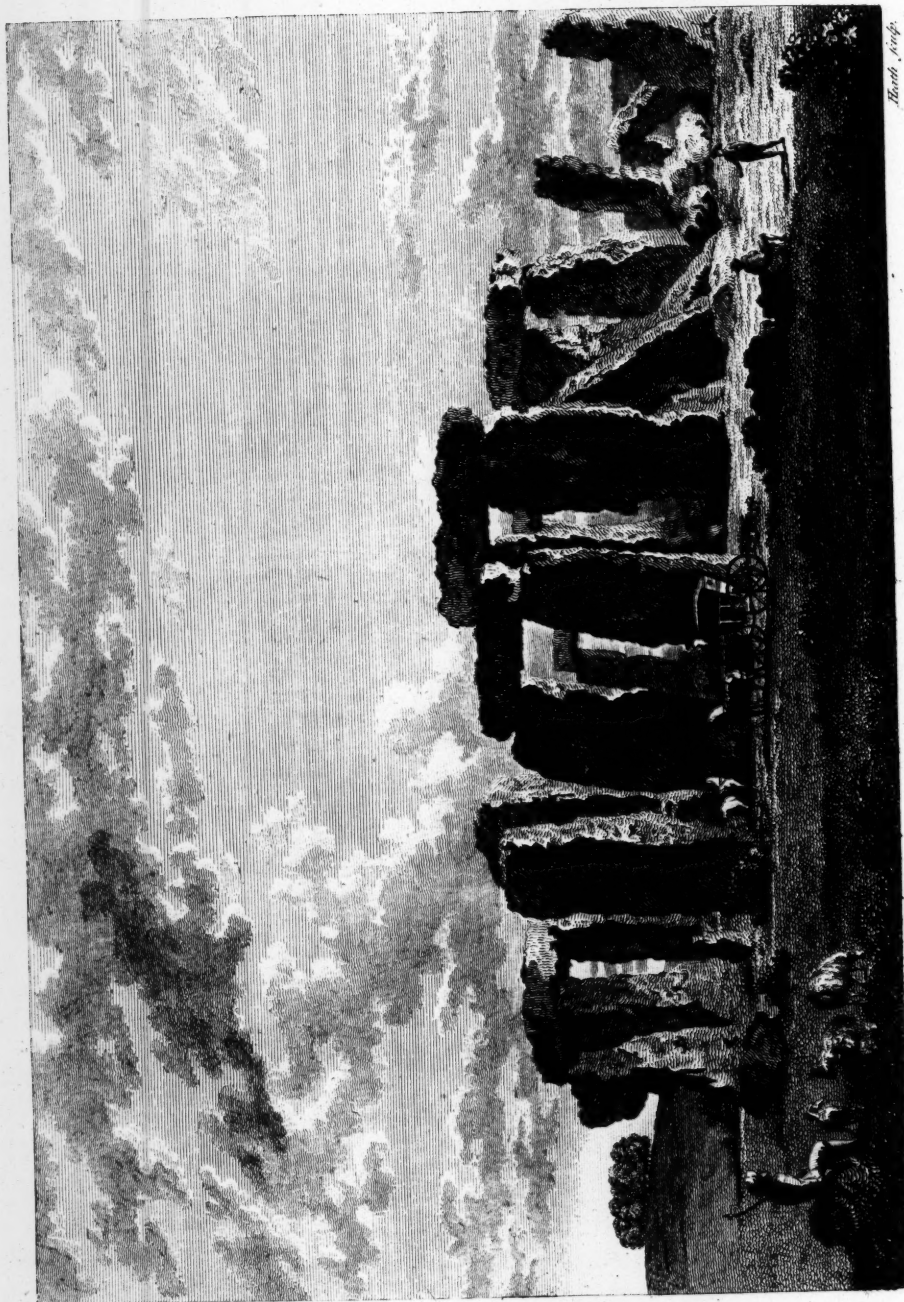
Peter-House College, founded by Hugh Balsham, Prior of Ely, and afterwards bishop of that see, in 1257.

Clare Hall, founded by a benefaction of Lady Elizabeth Clare, Countess of Ulster, in 1340.

Pembroke Hall, founded by a Countess of Pembroke, in 1347.

St. Bennet's, or Corpus Christi College, founded by the united guilds or fraternities of Corpus Christi and the Blessed Virgin, about the same time as the former.

Trinity



STONEHENGE.

Published as the Act directs, by Harrison & Co. July 1. 1794.

Trinity Hall, founded by Bateman, Bishop of Norwich, in 1548.

Gonvil and Caius College, founded by Edmund de Gonvil, in 1348; completed by Bateman; and additionally endowed by Caius, a physician, two hundred years after.

King's College, founded by Henry VI. and completed by his successors.

Queen's College, founded by the consort of the same king, but finished by Elizabeth, queen of Edward IV.

Catharine Hall, founded by Richard Woodlark, in 1475.

Jesus College, founded by John Alcock, Bishop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII.

Christ College, founded by Margaret Countess of Richmond, mother to Henry VII.

St. John's College, founded by the same lady.

Magdalen College, founded by Thomas Audley, Baron of Walden, in the reign of Henry VIII.

Trinity College, founded by Henry VIII.

Emanuel College, founded by Sir Walter Mildmay, in 1584.

Sidney College, founded by Thomas Radcliffe, Earl of Sussex, in 1588.

The numerous antiquities still extant in England are either British, Roman, Saxon, or Danish and Anglo-Normannic; but all these, the Roman excepted, throw very little light on ancient history. The principal British antiquities are those circles of huge stones, called Stonehenge, in Wiltshire; which, according to the opinions of the most able antiquaries, are the remains of Druidical superstition. Besides Stonehenge, which, from the amazing magnitude of the stones of which it is composed, hardly appears to be indebted to human art, there are several monuments of the same kind in Oxfordshire, Cumberland, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England; as well as in Scotland and the Hebrides.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars; monumental inscriptions; and military ways, the vestiges of which are still very distinct in several places: but none of them afford any valuable information, or give us much insight into the transactions of that warlike people. The remains of Roman camps are also still perceptible in almost every county; and their situations are in general so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so very complete, that there is some reason for conjecturing them to have been the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England.

The Saxon antiquities consist principally of ecclesiastical edifices and fortified places. At Winchester is shewn the Round Table of King Arthur, containing the names of his knights; though antiquarians, it must be confessed, are divided respecting its originality. Certain it is, however, that the burial-place of that romantic king has been discovered at Glastonbury, in consequence of some lines recited by a Welsh bard; so that his existence cannot possibly be doubted, though his history is involved in legendary tales. Indeed, many monuments of Saxon antiquity every where present themselves throughout this country; though they are with difficulty distinguished from those of the Danes and Normans.

Every part of England being replete with Anglo-Normannic erections, it may be unnecessary to particularize them. York Minster, and Westminster Hall and Abbey, are, perhaps, the finest specimens of Gothic architecture in Europe; and, indeed, all the cathedrals.

drals and old churches, that of St. Paul excepted, are more or less in the same stile of architecture.

Natural curiosities of almost every description are so copiously disseminated throughout England, that a regular detail and elucidation of them would require many volumes; and springs possessed of mineral and medicinal qualities, the chief of which are those of Bath, Bristol, Cheltenham, and Tunbridge, abound almost in every county.

The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, in Derbyshire, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never to be perceptibly diminished; and the Elden Hole, about four miles from the same place, is a hideous chasm in the side of a mountain, of which the depth is thought to be unfathomable. The entrance into Poole's Hole, near Buxton, is at first very low, but afterwards opens into a lofty vault, like the inside of a cathedral; a current of water running along the middle, the sounding stream of which, reverberating on every side, excites the astonishment of all who visit this immense concave. The drops of water constantly oozing from the roof and sides have a very fine effect; for, being possessed of a petrifying quality, they assume a variety of shapes, in which an enthusiastic imagination may easily perceive various animals or pieces of mechanism. The entrance into this wonderful cavity, which from its hideous appearance obtains the name of the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Under this sublime portico several cottagers reside, who principally subsist on the gratuities of those who visit this remarkable cavern, which is easily penetrated till crossed by four streams of water, when the most adventurous travellers very prudently deem it impassable. The vaults in several places make a splendid appearance; and, being chequered by stones of various colours, appear peculiarly beautiful.

It being a trite observation, that commerce and manufactures have rendered the English nation one of the most rich and powerful in the world, historical investigations of its truth would be tedious and unimportant. Suffice it to observe, that this country did not begin to feel its true weight in the scale of commerce till the reign of Queen Elizabeth: that illustrious princess first opened the eyes of her subjects to the benefits which their situation naturally held out to them; and, except in a very few instances, the efforts of her successors have been invariably directed to the same important purposes—to excite a spirit for adventure, to encourage the exertions of trade, and to extend the progress of manufactures.

Indeed, Great Britain is, of all other countries, the best adapted for trade; as well from its situation as an island, as from the freedom and excellency of its constitution, and its natural produce and extensive manufactures. It affords many of the most substantial and necessary commodities for exportation; and there is scarcely a manufacture in Europe which is not brought to the highest perfection in England: the woollen, however, is the most considerable; and exceeds, both in quantity and quality, that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; our clocks and watches are peculiarly admired; and, if we except lace and paper, there is, perhaps, not a single manufacture in which England has not acquired superior reputation.

Before the late unfortunate rupture between Great Britain and her principal colonies, the trade to North America was extensive, and highly advantageous to the mother country; but



Engraved by J. G. G. from a drawing by H. Moore for the Barons of England & Wales. 1840. 10. 1.

CHEE TOR.
On the River Ure.
Derbyshire.

but whether the commercial connections which may now be formed between them will be of much importance to Britain, time only can develop.

The English trade with the West Indies is of the last importance; and, as our possessions in that part of the world will at present be found very inconsiderable, if compared with what they were formerly, the legislature cannot surely be too attentive to the prosperity of those remaining appendages of the British crown, from which the most solid advantages may be derived to this island.

To enumerate the various articles which Britain exports and imports, and to give an accurate detail of British commerce, would be, in effect, to write a history of each quarter of the globe: suffice it to say, that our ships visit every known country, and our merchants trade with every nation.

The trade of England to the East Indies constitutes one of the most stupendous political as well as commercial machines to be met with in history. The trade itself is exclusive, and lodged in a company whose territorial acquisitions exceed those of many crowned heads. Their revenues are but imperfectly known, even to the directors themselves; though it is conjectured that they amount annually to near four millions sterling. The rapacity and injustice of the servants of the company in India, have at once disgraced the nation; and, as it should seem, impoverished the company: for while many individuals have acquired fortunes equal to the support of princely dignity, the company itself has been several times on the verge of ruin. It is, however, to be hoped, that the recent regulations adopted respecting this great commercial republic will be attended with the most salutary effects, in restraining the inhumanity of unprincipled plunderers, and convincing the unhappy natives of the east that Britons are as generous as they are brave.

During the infancy of foreign commerce, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East India, South Sea, Hudson's Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African companies, all took their rise: but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open; and, in the opinion of the ablest judges, if commercial restrictions were entirely abandoned in every quarter of the world, it would tend to the public benefit, to the increase of navigation, and to the improvement of the national revenue.

The following comparative view of European shipping, uncertain as it must necessarily be, may assist the reader in forming some notion of our foreign trade.

Suppose the shipping of Europe to be divided into twenty parts, then—

Great Britain is computed to have	6
The United Provinces	5
Denmark, Sweden, and Russia	2
The German Empire and the Austrian Netherlands	1
France	3
Spain and Portugal	2
Italy, and other parts of Europe	1

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20

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The most intelligent among the ancients, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seemed to regard it as a beautiful Utopian scheme, pleasing in theory, but impracticable in the execution. Experience, however, has proved, that this idea was not merely chimerical; for the English constitution has continued in it's full vigour for a period of more than 500 years. It must, however, be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments and alterations, though it has never been entirely overturned. That palladium of British liberty, the trial by jury, was practised from the first records of any regular government; and though, before the introduction of Christianity, a pecuniary mulct was deemed sufficient to procure a remission of the highest offence, it is nevertheless certain that, before the æra of which we now speak, cases of murder and felony were tried even in the king's court by a jury.

Among the Saxons, royalty was not, strictly speaking, hereditary; though, in fact, it became so through the affection which the people preserved for the blood of their kings, and for the sake of peace and regularity. Even estates and honours were not hereditary before the time of William the Conqueror; but, on this country's submitting to his authority, considerable innovations were introduced into the English constitution, though it's fundamental principles were not totally obliterated. His successors, in many respects, pursued the arbitrary steps of their progenitor: and the nobility, as well as the people, becoming loud in their complaints against the crown, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was after much bloodshed obtained from King John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded him in 1216. It does not appear that, till this reign, the commons of England were represented in parliament; so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves the disposal of the lives and properties of their fellow subjects: the precise time, however, when the House of Commons was formed, is not known; but we are certain that it began in the reign of Henry III. though we waive any dispute about it's specific powers.

In every government there must be an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and, by the singular constitution of these realms, this power is vested in the king, lords, and commons.

The supreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is vested by our constitution in a single individual; and the person entitled to sovereignty, whether male or female, is immediately entrusted with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives, of royal power. The grand fundamental maxim on which the right of succession to the throne of these kingdoms depends, is that the crown, both by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary: though this is in a manner peculiar to itself, since the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed or limited by act of parliament; under which limitations the crown still continues hereditary.

The King of Great Britain, notwithstanding the limitations to which the exercise of his power is subject, is one of the greatest monarchs reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which deems it high treason so much as to imagine or intend his death: neither can he in himself be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the

the land. His power is unquestionably very great: for though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits, or the boundaries prescribed by the constitution; though he can make no new laws, nor raise any new taxes; he can levy war, or make peace; send and receive ambassadors; form treaties of league and commerce; raise armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom and the annoyance of his enemies; grant commissions to his officers both by sea and land, and revoke them at pleasure; refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both Houses; convoke, adjourn, prorogue, and dissolve, the parliament; elect his own council; nominate all the great officers of state, of the household, and of the church; and he is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived.

Parliaments, as already observed, are of very remote antiquity; and have subsisted, in their present form, for upwards of five hundred years. The parliament is assembled by the king's writ, and it's sitting must not be intermitted for more than three years. It's constituent parts are, the King in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm: the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, who with his Majesty compose the House of Peers; and the Commons, who form a House of themselves. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom: and, to preserve the balance of the constitution inviolate, each possesses it's respective powers, immunities, and exemptions; so that they are mutually a check on one another.

The Lords Spiritual consist of two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops: the Lords Temporal consist of all the peers of the realm; some of whom sit by descent, some by creation, and others, since the union with Scotland, by election; which is the case with the Sixteen Peers who represent the whole body of the Scotch nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and is frequently increased when the crown has any favourite object to pursue, in the accomplishment of which the peerage may be rendered serviceable.

The Commons consist of such men, of a certain property in the kingdom, as have no seat in the House of Lords; every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either personally or by his representative. In a free state, it is necessary that every man should be in some measure his own governor; and, in so large a state as that of England, it is wisely contrived that the people should perform that by means of representatives, which it would be impossible for them to effect individually. The counties, therefore, of which there are forty, exclusive of Wales, are represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: and the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burghesses, chosen by the mercantile or supposed trading part of the nation; and thus the whole number of representatives in the English House of Commons amounts to five hundred and fifty-eight; the forty-five for Scotland being included. Every member, however, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm; for the end of his coming thither is not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, of which he is an immediate guardian.

Such are the constituent parts of a British parliament, the King, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and the Commons; each of which is so necessary, that the concurrence of all three is required to enact any new law which has power to bind the subject. The Parliament possesses

possesses sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding, the laws concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil or military, maritime or criminal; this being the tribunal to which that absolute despotic power, which in all governments must reside somewhere, is entrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances which transcend the ordinary course of the laws are referable to this supreme court of justice, which can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown; alter the established religion of the land; change, and create afresh, even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves; and, in short, its power is unlimited.

Besides his High Court of Parliament, the King of England has subordinate officers and ministers to assist him, who are responsible for their advice and conduct. These are nominated by the king, without either patent or grant; and, in taking the requisite oaths, they become immediately privy-counsellors during the natural life of the king who elects them; subject, however, to removal at his pleasure.

The great officers of the crown are the following nine: the Lord High Steward, the Lord High Chancellor, the Lord High Treasurer, the Lord President of the Council, the Lord Privy Seal, the Lord Great Chamberlain, the Lord High Constable, the Earl Marshal, and the Lord High Admiral. But several of these offices are now held by commission, being deemed too important to be entrusted to any individual.

The supreme courts of law are the Chancery, a court of equity next in dignity to the high court of Parliament; the court of King's Bench, in which all matters determinable between the king and his subjects are to be tried; the court of Common Pleas, which takes cognizance of all pleas between subject and subject; and the court of Exchequer, instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and which possesses a power of deciding both according to law and equity.

For the more effectual execution of the laws of England, a High Sheriff, whose office is both ministerial and judicial, is annually appointed for every county, (except Middlesex and Westmoreland) by the king in council. He is to execute the king's mandates, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of judicature; to impanel juries; to bring causes and malefactors to trial; and to see all sentences, as well civil as criminal, put in execution. He likewise collects all public fines, distresses, and amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king shall appoint; and makes such payments out of them as his Majesty shall judge proper. As his office is judicial, he also keeps a court for the purpose of hearing and determining all civil causes in the county, under forty shillings; but which, however, is no court of record.

The next officer to the sheriff is the Justice of Peace. Several of these magistrates are commissioned for each county; and to them is entrusted the power of putting in execution great part of the statute laws relative to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. and of examining and committing to prison such persons as are found guilty of breaking or disturbing the peace, and disquieting the king's subjects.

Each county contains two Coroners, whose business consists in making enquiry, by means
of

of a jury of neighbours, how, and by whom, any person came to a violent death; and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown.

The civil government of cities is a kind of small independent policy of itself; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself to judge in all matters civil and criminal: with this limitation only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher ones at Westminster; and all capital offences are committed to the judge at the assizes. The government of cities, however, differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions: they are composed of a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses; who collectively make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor presides as judge.

Incorporated boroughs are governed almost after a similar manner; some of them by a mayor, and others by two bailiffs only: all which, during their mayoralty, or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their respective liberties.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the soil or manor have generally a power to hold courts, called Courts Leet, and Courts Baron, where their tenants attend, in order to obtain justice. The business of courts leet is chiefly to prevent and punish nuisances; and, at courts baron, the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and themselves admitted to their estates, on a descent or purchase.

The lowest peace-officers are constables and tything-men: the business of the former being to keep the peace in all cases of riots and quarrels; and that of the latter to assist them in the execution of their duty.

So religiously are the rights of Englishmen regarded, that the subject may, without the smallest danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name and under his authority; and this may be done in open court, where the king may be cast, and obliged to pay damages to his subjects. The king cannot infringe the liberty of the meanest individual, unless he has, on account of some illegal act, been accused or suspected, on oath, of having forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety renders it necessary that he should have the power of imprisoning persons suspected of guilt: such as, an act of rebellion within the kingdom, when the legislature has thought it expedient to pass a suspension of the Habeas Corpus act. This, however, is seldom done without great difficulty and caution; and when the national preservation has been supposed to require it. Even malefactors, committed on the clearest evidence of guilt, experience every indulgence, and are allowed every means of establishing their pretensions to innocence which humanity can require. When the culprit is brought to the bar, the clerk of the crown commands him to hold up his hand; and, after reciting the allegations against him, asks him whether he is guilty, or not guilty. If the prisoner pleads 'Guilty,' the trial is at an end; but if he answers, 'Not guilty,' the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may have previously confessed the fact: for the law of England takes no cognizance of such confessions; and, unless the witnesses (who are upon oath) prove him guilty of the crime laid to his charge, the jury must acquit him, being directed to ground their verdict on the evidence given in court. If the prisoner refuses to plead, that is, will not declare in court whether he is guilty or not, the trial proceeds in the same manner as if he

had pleaded not guilty. When the witnesses have delivered their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the evidence given against the prisoner, and bids them discharge their consciences; when, if the fact be very clear, they commonly deliver their verdict without going out of court; and the foreman, for himself and the rest of the jury, declares the prisoner guilty, or not guilty, according to the case. But, should any doubt arise among the jury, and the matter require debate, they withdraw into a separate apartment, carrying with them a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimously agreed on the verdict; and, should any of them happen to die during this confinement, the prisoner would necessarily be acquitted.

Though the laws of England, with respect to the punishment of offenders, are more mild than those of any other nation, the profligacy of the people, and the consequent number of penal statutes, occasion more executions in this than in any other country in Europe. The law of England comprehends all capital crimes under high treason, petty treason, and felony; the extent of the construction of which terms being generally known, we forbear descanting on them. Crimes of lesser magnitude, though punishable by the laws, are those of manslaughter, chance-medley, shop-lifting, perjury, petty-larceny, libelling, striking, and several other offences against religion, morality, and the peace and happiness of society in general.

The clear neat produce of the several branches of the revenue, after payment of all charges of collecting and management, amounts annually to upwards of eight millions; besides two millions and a half raised annually, at an average, by the land and malt tax. Such immense sums, it might naturally be supposed, would be equal to any national exigence; but they are almost entirely applied to the discharge of the interest of the money raised on government securities; or, in other words, the national debt. This debt, which has been continually accumulating since the Revolution, amounts at present to the enormous sum of two hundred millions sterling, and upwards; for the payment of the interest of which, and the charges of management, nearly eight millions sterling are annually required.

The national debt derived its origin from a mode of finance adopted soon after the accession of William III. From several expensive wars and political engagements about that æra, the expences of government were increased to an unusual degree; inasmuch that it was deemed dangerous to raise all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that space of time, lest the unaccustomed weight of them should create murmurs among the people. It was therefore politically, though fatally, projected, to anticipate the revenues of posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes on the subject than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sums so borrowed: thus converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferable from one person to another at any time, and in any quantity. Such was the foundation of what is now called the national debt: for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II. by no means deserve that appellation.

His present Majesty, soon after his accession, spontaneously signified his consent, that the hereditary revenues of the crown should be so disposed of as might best conduce to the utility

lity and satisfaction of the public, and accepted of the neat sum of 800,000*l.* a year, in lieu of them. This sum, however, has been found inadequate to the support of his Majesty's household, and the payment of officers with which the civil list is charged; so that recourse has frequently been had to parliament for occasional grants to make up the deficiency.

In a land of liberty, it must ever be extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms; and no man should take up arms but with a view to defend his country and it's laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is because he would wish to preserve his immunities, and transmit them to his posterity, that he becomes a soldier. The laws, therefore, and the constitution of these kingdoms, recognize no such state as that of a perpetual soldier, bred up to the sole profession of arms; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons. In the earlier ages, however, a national militia was established; an order of military alone compatible with the principles of public liberty and private security: but, in a kingdom situated like this, where jealous neighbours require to be watched with the eye of circumspection, and where an advantage might be taken of too pacific an establishment, it has been found necessary to keep up a standing army of about forty thousand men, even in times of peace; but these, however, are obliged to be disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament.

In time of war, and particularly in the last, the land-forces of these kingdoms, natives and foreigners, have amounted to 135,000 men, exclusive of 42,000 militia.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, usually amounts to twelve or fifteen thousand; and, since the commencement of the late American war, they have increased to 99,000. The navy is divided into three squadrons, the Red, the White, and the Blue; so termed from the difference of their colours. Each squadron has it's respective admiral; but the admiral of the Red Squadron has the principal direction of the whole, and is styled Vice-Admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is a vice and a rear-admiral; but the supreme command of the naval force, next to the king, is vested in the lords commissioners of the Admiralty.

During the late war, the British navy was able to make head against all the other fleets in Europe. In the course of a few years, it considerably reduced the naval power of France; weakened that of Spain; and kept the Dutch, and other powers, in awe: and, though the event of war was not ultimately in our favour, never did the British naval officers and seamen in general more nobly signalize themselves.

The title of the King of England is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The designation of the sovereign of these realms was formerly His or Her Grace, or Highness; till Henry VIII. to put himself on an equality with the Emperor Charles V. assumed that of Majesty: however, the old designation was not entirely abolished till the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign.

Since the accession of the present royal family, the royal achievement is marshalled as follows: quarterly, in the first grand quarter, Mars, Three Lions passant guardant, in pale, Sol, the imperial ensigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, Sol, a Lion rampant within a double tressure flowered and counterflowered, with Fleurs-de-lis,

lis, Mars. The second quarter contains the royal arms of France, viz. Jupiter, three Fleurs-de-lis, Sol. The third contains the ensigns of Ireland; Jupiter, a Harp, Sol, fringed Luna. And the fourth grand quarter contains the proper arms of the Brunswic line, viz. Mars, Two Lions passant guardant, Sol, for Brunswic, impaled with Lunenburg, which are, Sol, Semee of Hearts proper, a Lion rampant, Jupiter; having ancient Saxony, viz. Mars, an Horse currant Luna, ente, in base; and, in a shield furtout, Mars, the Diadem or Crown of Charlemagne; the whole encircled with a Garter, as sovereign of that most noble order of knighthood. The motto is, '*Dieu et mon Droit*—God and my Right.'

The titles of the heir-apparent to the crown, are, Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall and Rothsay, Earl of Chester, Electoral Prince of Brunswic and Lunenburg, Earl of Carrick, Baron of Renfrew, Lord of the Isles, Great Steward of Scotland, and Captain General of the Artillery Company.

The orders of knighthood in England are two, of both which the king is grand-master. The order of the Garter, or St. George, was instituted in 1350, by Edward III. and consists of the sovereign and twenty-five knights companions. It's insignia, or badge, is St. George on Horseback, with a Dragon of enamelled gold, bearing the motto, '*Honi soit qui mal y pense*—Evil be to him who evil thinks.' The George is worn appended to a blue ribband; and the above motto is likewise worn on the left-leg on a blue garter embroidered with gold.

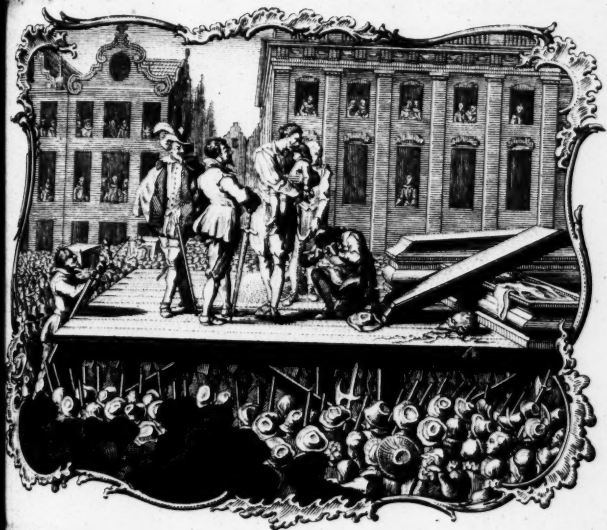
The order of the Bath was instituted by Henry IV. and revived, with some improvements, in 1725, by George I. It derives it's name from the ancient custom of the knights bathing at the time of their creation. This order consists of thirty-five knights, exclusive of the sovereign. It's ensigns are, Three Crowns in a field, Or; with this inscription, '*Tria juncta in uno*;' and is worn appendant to a red ribband.

It is impossible, in a work of this nature, to expatiate on every thing beautiful or curious in the various cities and towns which present themselves in different counties; nor can we do justice to the numerous architectural beauties with which England abounds.

London, the metropolis of the British empire, situated in 56 degrees 31 minutes north latitude, is supposed to have been founded in the interim between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain. We learn from Tacitus, however, that it was a place of great trade during the reign of the Emperor Nero; and, soon after, esteemed the capital of the island.

London, taken in an extensive sense, (including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex) is a city of surprizing extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. It is the centre of commerce, the seat of liberty, and the admiration of the world. Being situated on the banks of that large and beautiful river the Thames, it has thereby a communication with the most distant parts of the globe, and enjoys every advantage which can possibly be desired either for the purposes of pleasure or commerce. It's extent from east to west is generally allowed to be about seven miles; it's medium breadth being from two to three miles.

Besides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church of St. Peter's, Westminster, there are about one hundred parish-churches and seventy chapels of the established religion; twenty French



French Protestant chapels; ten chapels belonging to the Dutch, Danes, &c. thirty Baptist meetings; thirty Quakers and Independent meetings; twenty-five Presbyterian meetings; twenty Popish chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors and people of various sects; and three Jewish synagogues.

In and near the city of London are one hundred alms-houses; about twenty hospitals and infirmaries; three colleges; ten public prisons; fifteen flesh-markets; one market for live cattle; two markets more particularly for herbs; twenty-three markets for corn, coals, and hay; forty-nine halls for companies; eight public schools; one hundred and thirty charity-schools, for the education of near six thousand poor children; seven thousand streets, lanes, courts, and alleys; and, as is generally supposed, about one million of inhabitants.

The most remarkable and beautiful structures are the bridges distinguished by the names of London, Blackfriars, and Westminster; St. Paul's Cathedral, Westminster Abbey, Westminster Hall, the Royal Exchange, the Bank, and the Mansion House: and there are many other public and private edifices, not less famous for their elegance than their convenience.

Nevertheless, the plan of London, in it's present state, is far from being so perfect as might be expected in a nation where taste, elegance, and opulence, are combined in stimulating the progress of improvement. Before the dreadful conflagration in 1666, the private buildings in general were both inelegant and unhealthy; and though, ever since that memorable catastrophe, the city of London has been gradually improving, from the narrow-mindedness of interested individuals, it has not yet arrived at that state of perfection and uniformity to which the opulence of the inhabitants might have easily extended it. In particular, the wharfs and quays along the banks of the Thames are extremely mean and inconvenient; the streets in general are neither regular nor uniform; and many beautiful churches, and other public buildings, are so disadvantageously situated, that their proportions and elegance are totally obscured. It must, however, be allowed, that the improvements in the city of London, for some years past, have been very considerable; and that the new streets, which are numerous, are spacious and elegant. The royal palace of St. James is mean beyond conception, when considered as the usual residence of one of the greatest monarchs in the universe. Windsor Castle, however, from it's beautiful and commanding situation, is esteemed a fabric by no means unworthy of the British monarch. Hampton Court, the favourite residence of King William, contains some good apartments; but though the situation is enchanting, the building is far from being magnificent and striking.

Bristol, reckoned the second city in England for it's extent and population, is more remarkable for it's commerce and opulence than for any curious or beautiful structures it contains: and, indeed, all the other towns and cities of England have little more to recommend them to our notice than their commerce and the conveniency of their situations.

No nation in the world, however, has such dock-yards, and so well furnished for the convenience of constructing and repairing the royal navy, as those of Portsmouth, Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. In these the quantities of all sorts of naval stores are immense; a sufficient stock being always kept up to equip near a hundred sail of the line.

In our account of the progress of language, we have mentioned the various revolutions which this country has undergone; but, as a continued detail of events is more properly the province of history than of geography, we shall wave entering any farther into that subject.

The principality of WALES, though politically included in England, is nevertheless distinguished from it by a diversity of language and manners: the Welsh, as has been observed, being the Aborigines of England; who, on the descent of Julius Cæsar, were driven into this mountainous country, to avoid the Roman yoke. The seasons in Wales are nearly similar to those in the north parts of England; and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous; but it contains rich vallies, which produce plentiful crops of wheat, rye, and other corn.

This country contains many quarries of free-stone and slate; several mines of lead; abundance of coal-pits; and is well supplied with wholesome springs. Its principal rivers are, the Clwyd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen; each furnishing great quantities of fish.

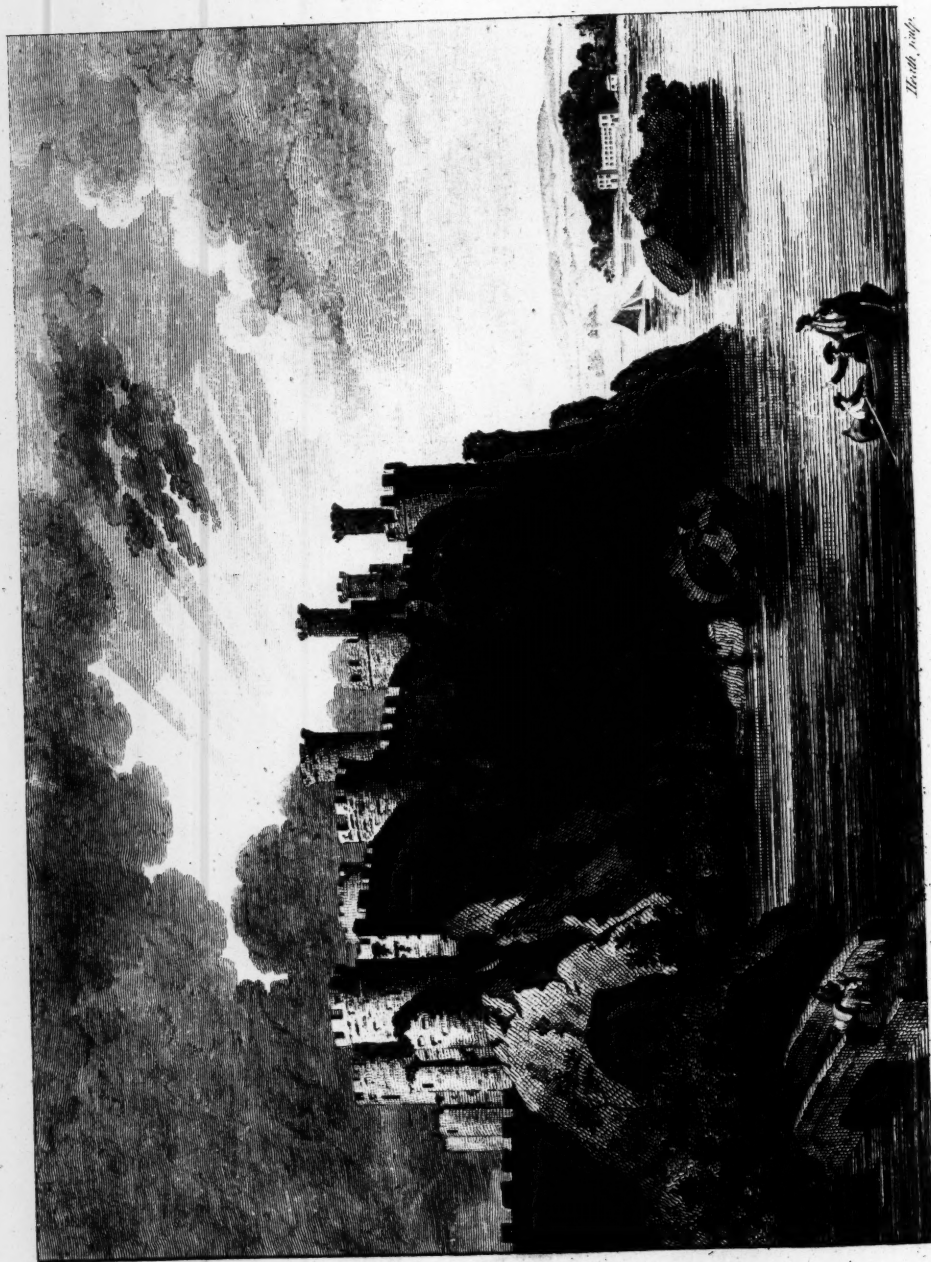
The mountains of Wales are some of the most stupendous in Europe, the Alps and Pyrenees excepted. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire; and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganshire; are the most famous.

The animal and vegetable productions of Wales differ but little from those of England: the horses and black cattle, however, are considerably smaller, though capable of undergoing the utmost fatigue; and great numbers of goats feed on the mountains.

Wales is supposed to contain about three hundred thousand inhabitants; who, though far from being generally in affluent circumstances, are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniences of life. The Welsh are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English; and, though naturally more irascible, are full as remarkable for their fidelity and attachment. They are universally infected with the ridiculous pride of tracing their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which, they pretend, are coeval with the Incarnation of our Saviour. It is, however, certain, that great part of their ancient history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, as well as better attested, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. The Welsh may be considered as an original people, not blended with any other nation; as evidently appears from their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners; and, indeed, this distinguishing peculiarity is perceptible even among gentlemen of fortune; who, when in other countries, follow the stream of fashion.

The Church of Rome could not establish its power in Wales till the greatest part of the Welsh clergy was massacred by Augustine, the popish apostle of England. After this, Wales fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous; hence the Romish clergy easily insinuated themselves into their favour, by their pretended power of absolving them from their crimes; and the vulgar (their ancient clergy being extinct) conformed without much difficulty to the Church of Rome.

The established religion in Wales is that of the Church of England; but the common people, in some places, are so tenacious of their ancient customs, that they retain many of the popish superstitions; and several ancient families still profess the Roman Catholic religion. The Welsh clergy, indeed, labour under many difficulties; they are but scantily provided for, and too often unqualified, in point of erudition, for supporting the dignity of the clerical function;



North, engr.

CONWAY CASTLE.

Engraved as the Act directs, by Harrison & Co. June 1. 1864.

West, del.

function; and hence they are not treated with that degree of respect which is unquestionably due to the sacred order.

Wales was the seat of learning at a very early period, though it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the clergy and bards. The Scotch and Welsh dispute the place of nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Wales, however, has certainly given birth to many bards of the most brilliant genius, whose names are venerable in history, and whose remains have been lately exhibited to the world by a native of that country capable of displaying their intrinsic merit in another language. The discovery of the burying-place of the famous King Arthur and his consort was owing to some lines of *Thalieffin* repeated before Henry II. of England by a Welsh bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced so many learned men in almost every branch of literature, that it would be invidious to particularize any; and, even at this time, many Welshmen make a considerable figure in the republic of letters.

Though Wales contains twelve counties, it has not a single city, nor even a town, remarkable either for beauty, population, or extent. Beaumaris, the capital of Anglesey, is furnished with a good harbour; Brecknock carries on an extensive trade in cloathing; Cardigan is pretty populous, and advantageously situated in the vicinity of several lead-mines; Caermarthen is principally remarkable for its handsome bridge; and Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen: but the other towns hardly deserve our notice.

The remains of antiquity in this principality are still pretty numerous. Several of its castles are prodigiously large; and, in some of them, traces of Roman architecture are plainly distinguishable. In Brecknockshire, there are some rude sculptures on a stone about six feet high, to which the natives give the name of the Maiden Stone. But the remains of the institutions and places of worship of the Druids are principally conspicuous in the Isle of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, which Tacitus describes as having been the chief seminary of their rites and religion; and, among other artificial curiosities, King Offa's Dyke, said to have been erected as a boundary between the Saxons and the Welsh or Britons, is reckoned none of the least singular. Cherphilly Castle, in Glamorganshire, is (next to Windfor) reputed to be the largest in Great Britain; and its remains still evince it to have been a most splendid pile: one half of a round tower has quite fallen to decay; while the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy. Nor must we forget to mention Conway Castle; at once remarkable for its elegant and stupendous appearance, and the noble and picturesque prospect it commands.

Wales contains many remarkable natural curiosities. At a village called Newton, in Glamorganshire, near the sea, there is a remarkable spring which ebbs and flows contrary to the tides. In Merionethshire, there is a lofty mountain called Kader Idris, which affords a variety of Alpine plants. Flintshire is famous for St. Winifred's Well; by the surprizing virtues of which, if we may credit the legendary tales of the common people, many miraculous cures have been effected. This spring, which boils out of a rock with vast impetuosity, is formed into a beautiful polygonal well covered with a rich arch supported by pillars, the roof being most exquisitely charged with several armorial bearings carved in stone. In Caernarvonshire, the high mountain of Penmanmawr is situated; across the edge of which lies the public road,
formerly

formerly much dreaded by travellers of a timid disposition: on one hand, the impending rock seemed ready to crush them to pieces; while the great precipice below, which overhangs the sea, was so hideous, and dangerous, that till a wall was lately raised on one side of the road, a single false step must have been attended with the most fatal consequences. Indeed, the lofty hills with which this principality abounds, every where present us with some prospects and picturesque views, which philosophic travellers regard with an astonishment not much inferior to that which arises from the contemplation of natural curiosities.

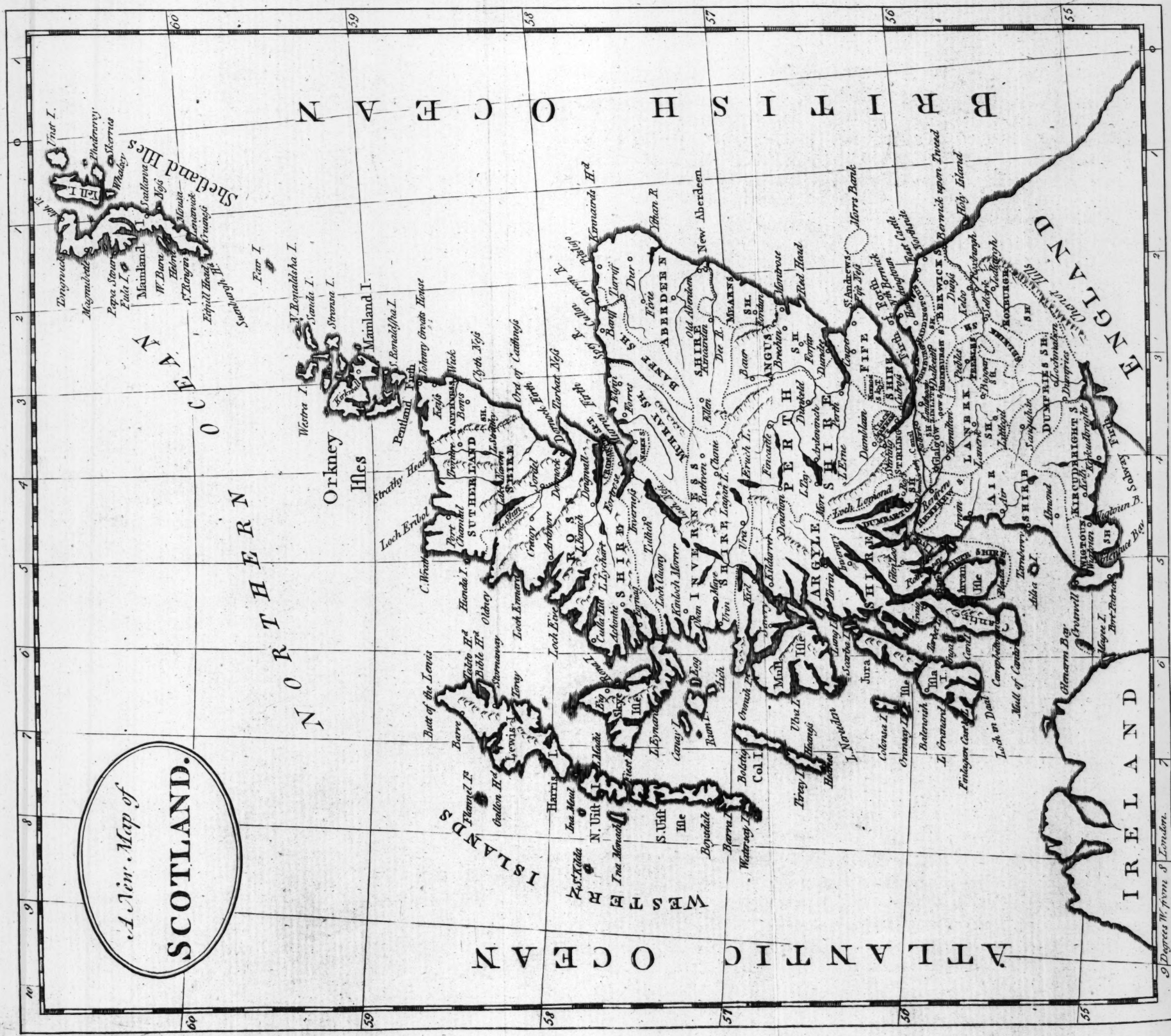
The trade of Wales is chiefly inland, or with England, into which prodigious numbers of black cattle are annually imported. Milford Haven, esteemed the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokeshire; but the Welsh have hitherto derived very little advantage from it, though considerable sums have been expended by the British parliament in completing its fortifications. The town of Pembroke carries on an extensive trade, and there are upwards of two hundred vessels employed by its merchants. In Brecknockshire there are several valuable woollen manufactures; and in different parts of the principality there are extensive lead and copper works, which are of immense benefit to their proprietors and the community at large.

Wales being united to England, its government is modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated. The inhabitants are admitted to a full participation of all the English liberties and privileges; particularly that of sending members to parliament; viz. a knight for every shire, and a burgess for every shire-town, Merioneth excepted. For the regular administration of justice, there are four several circuits, each consisting of three counties, over each of which a chief justice and a justice-assistant preside.

The revenues arising to the public from Wales are extremely trifling; and those accruing to the Prince of Wales from his principality do not appear to exceed eight thousand pounds a year.

The arms of the Prince of Wales differ from those of England only by the addition of a Label with Three Points. His cap, or badge, of Ostrich Feathers, was occasioned by a trophy of that kind taken by Edward the Black Prince from the King of Bohemia, who was killed at the battle of Poitiers; and the motto is '*Ich dien*—I serve.' St. David is the tutelary saint of the Welsh; whose badge is a Leek, generally worn by the natives of that principality on the first of March; for which singularity several reasons have been assigned, though probably all of them are very remote from truth.

The ancient history of Wales is totally enveloped in fable and uncertainty, on account of the great number of petty princes who at different times ruled over it. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of the Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices; who so resolutely opposed the Saxon invaders, that the Welsh remained an independent people for many ages. However, about the year 870, Roderic King of Wales having divided his kingdom among his three sons, a mortal blow was given to its independency; and, about the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welsh princes being at that time powerful enough to oppose them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England, in order to preserve their liberties inviolate; but the old and infirm prince Llewellyn, having put himself under the protection of Henry



Henry III. to avoid the persecution of his undutiful son Griffyn, first furnished England with a plausible pretext for the future conquest of Wales.

But no terms short of absolute submission would satisfy the ambition of Edward I. of England, who was resolved to annex Wales to his crown. Having defeated and killed young Llewellyn in battle, and soon after made himself master of his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, whom he barbarously and unjustly hanged, he from that time considered his purpose as legally effected, and declared Wales an appendage of his crown. It seems probable that, about this time, Edward also perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welsh bards; but perceiving that such savage barbarity was ineffectual to render the Welsh submissive to his power, he politically sent his pregnant queen to Caernarvon Castle, there to be delivered; that the Welsh, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unfortunate Edward II. from whom the title of Prince of Wales has been regularly transmitted to the heirs-apparent of the British throne.

From this æra, the history of Wales becomes blended with that of England; and the fortunes of the two nations, both in peace and war, have ever since been essentially the same. It may, however, be worthy of remark, that the kings of England have always found it beneficial, and perhaps even necessary, to gratify the pride of the Welsh with peculiar marks of their regard: for which reason, when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter was created Princess of Wales.

SCOTLAND, lying between 54 and 59 degrees of north latitude, and between 1 and 6 of west longitude, is bounded on the north, east, and west, by the Deucalionian, German, and Irish seas, or more properly the Atlantic Ocean; and, on the north, by England, from which it is separated by no natural boundary, if we except the Solway Frith, near Carlisle, on the west, and the mouth of the Tweed at Berwick on the east. In the time of the Romans, however, it extended much farther, being bounded by a wall raised by that warlike people between Newcastle and Carlisle; and, under the Norman kings of England, it included Northumberland, Westmorland, and Cumberland.

Scotland is naturally divided into the counties south of the Frith of Forth, of which the capital is Edinburgh; and those on the north of the same river, the capital of which is Aberdeen. In the southern division are eighteen counties or shires, and there are fifteen in the northern; all these counties being subdivided into sheriffdoms, stewardies, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

In the more northern parts of Scotland, the longest day in summer is eighteen hours and five minutes; consequently, the day and night in winter, when at the shortest, are in the same proportion. The air is more temperate than might naturally be expected in such a northern climate: partly from its numerous hills, rivers, lakes, and vallies, but more especially from its vicinity to the sea; those warm breezes which proceed from that element not only softening the natural keenness of the air, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, but also rendering it pure and salubrious, and preventing those epidemic distempers so prevalent in other countries:

countries: however, in the neighbourhood of some high mountains generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for nearly nine months in the year.

The soil of Scotland is not in general so fertile as that of England; and, in many places, it is much better adapted for pasturage than agriculture: there are, however, many fertile plains which fall nothing short of the most desirable spots in England. The water of this country, which generally passes through a soil composed of sand and gravel, is clear, light, and healthful.

The principal mountains in this kingdom are, the Grampian Hills; the Pentland Hills; the mountain of Lammer-Muir; and Cheviot, or Teviot Hills, on the frontiers of England. Besides these, Scotland also contains many detached mountains; which, on account of their conical shapes, have obtained the name of Laws, from the Celtic: many of them are stupendously high, and of the most beautiful figures; but too numerous to be particularized. However, they afford that agreeable diversity of natural objects, and those enchanting situations, which are so often seen and admired in Scotland.

The Forth, the most considerable river in Scotland, rises in Monteith, near Callendar; and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself into the German Sea near Edinburgh. Next to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbine; and running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, esteemed the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch; and, running from south-west to north-east, falls into the sea near Elgin. The Dee and Don run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanerkshire; and, after many beautiful serpentine windings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England. The Clyde rises in Annandale; and running north-west through the valley of that name, passes by several cities and towns, and at last falls into the Frith of Clyde opposite the Isle of Bute. Besides these more important rivers, Scotland contains a variety of beautiful streams, excellently supplied with fish of various species.

The lakes of Scotland are too numerous to be particularized: those of the Tay, Lomond, Lochness, and Au, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely to be equalled in Europe. Several of them, which are beautifully fringed with woods, contain plenty of fresh-water fish. Near Lochness is a hill almost two miles perpendicular; on the top of which is a lake of fresh-water, so deep that it has never yet been fathomed, nor ever freezes; whereas that called the Green Lake, about seventeen miles from thence, is covered with ice the whole year.

This country, even where most sterile and uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of it's having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepest morasses contain large logs of wood; and their waters, which seem to be impregnated with turpentine, possess a preserving quality, as is evident from several human bodies which have been discovered at their bottoms. The Caledonian Forest, the remains of which are supposed to be Etrick Wood, in the south of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for having been the resort of wild boars, the breed of which is now totally extinct. Several woods, however, still remain in this part of the country, consisting principally of oak and fir-trees, which arrive at the highest

highest perfection, and add very considerably to the luxuriance of the prospect; though they have never turned out much to the emolument of the proprietors, because of their very great distance from water carriage.

Scotland contains several gold mines, which formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford Moor; and it is an undoubted fact that, when that prince espoused the French king's daughter, the guests entertained by the Scottish monarch on that occasion, were presented, by way of desert, with several dishes filled with coins of Scotch gold. The civil wars, however, and subsequent troubles, under his daughter, and during the minority of his grandson, interrupted the progress of these foreigners; and the works have never since been resumed.

The lead-mines of Scotland are peculiarly rich, and produce large quantities of silver. Some copper-mines have been discovered in the vicinity of Edinburgh; coals abound in different parts; and lime-stone is extremely plentiful. A variety of beautiful transparent stones, crystals, variegated pebbles, and lapis-lazuli, are found in different counties of Scotland; and free-stone is so common, that the houses of private people and citizens are generally constructed of that beautiful and durable material.

The soil of Scotland may be rendered nearly as fertile as that of England; and agriculture, both in theory and practice, is as well understood in Scotland as in any other part of Europe: indeed, many tracts of land, once entirely barren, are now not only clothed with verdure, but produce various sorts of grain; and so rapidly has the art of cultivation been diffused over this kingdom, that the face of nature appears to be materially changed. In many spots over which the barren heath formerly spread its sable carpet, the most thriving plantations now rise to view; and in others, where scarce a blade of grass could vegetate, the corn begins to wave its golden ears. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and hay, are the general produce of the soil; and, in the southern counties, the finest garden-fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, arrive at a considerable degree of perfection. The Highlands, however, still contain many extensive sterile tracts; and, indeed, the soil seems only adapted to the propagation of firs, which thrive prodigiously on the most rocky and barren mountains.

The fisheries on the coasts of Scotland, if properly patronized, would prove an inexhaustible source of national wealth. The most valuable and delicious kinds of fish abound in every part of the surrounding seas; of which, however, the Dutch reap the principal advantage. The Scotch salmon are highly esteemed in foreign markets; and are of the most essential service to the nation, as the returns for them are generally made in specie, or some beneficial commodities.

Scotland contains but few animals, either wild or domestic, peculiar to itself. The red-deer and the roebuck are found in the Highlands; but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and other animals of the game kind, are extremely plentiful: also the grouse; the heath-cock; the capperkail; and the ptarmacan, a bird of the pheasant kind.

The numbers of black cattle and sheep which are fed in the Scotch pastures are almost incredible; and were formerly imported into England in amazing quantities.

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The horses of Scotland, notwithstanding the great expence and pains which have been employed in improving the breed, are much inferior to those of England, both in spirit and strength; and it would even seem as if the soil and climate of Scotland were equally unfavourable to that noble animal.

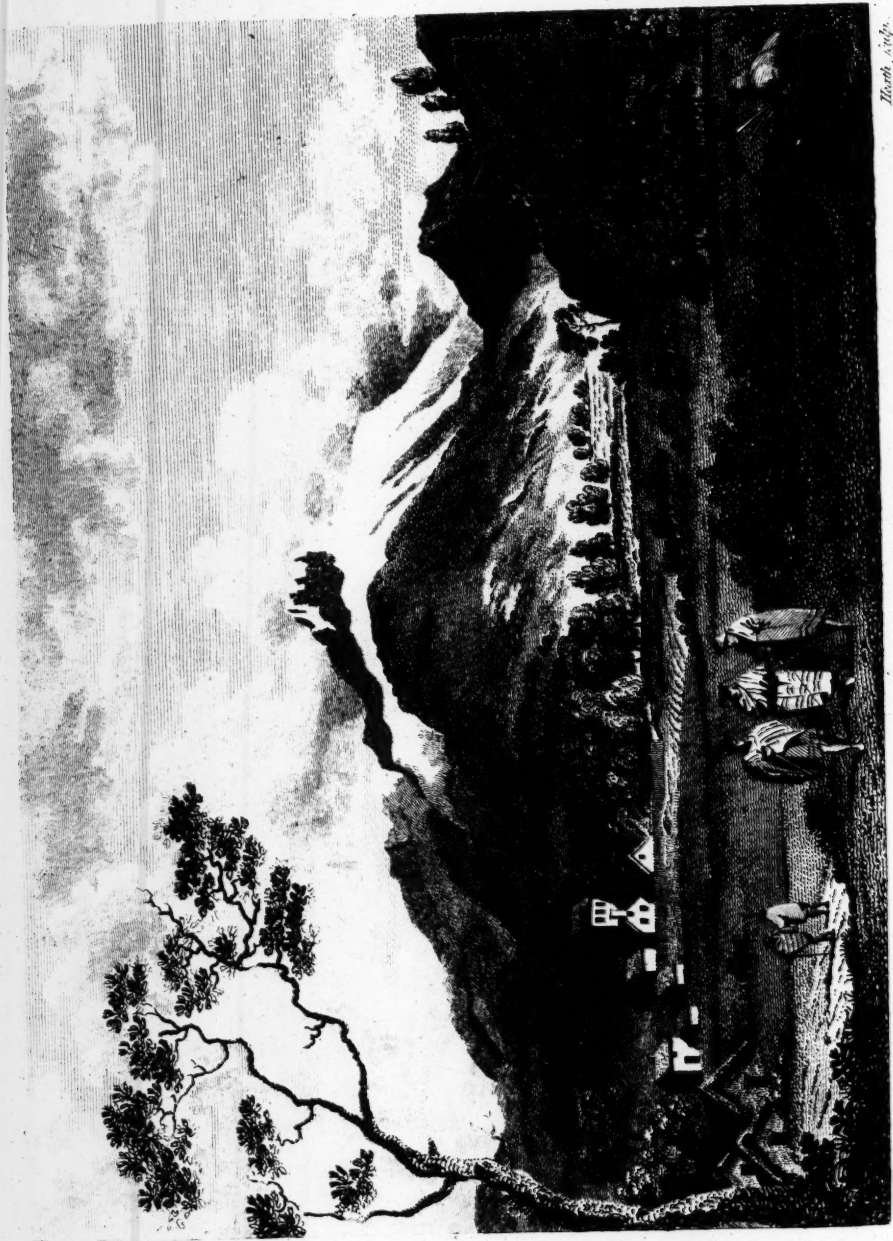
The population of Scotland has generally been estimated at a million and a half of souls: but this calculation rests entirely on conjecture; and it is highly probable that it is by far too low. Considering the vast numbers of armed men which this country has always furnished in time of war, we cannot reasonably fix it at less than two millions and upwards; and even that number falls infinitely short of what it must have been some centuries ago, when so many thousands fell by the sword of England, without any sensible diminution of its inhabitants.

The Scotch are generally active, strong-limbed, capable of enduring much fatigue, and adventurous, solid, shrewd, and sensible; faithful to their engagements, and sedulous in their vocations. They are, however, generally tinctured with a ridiculous family pride; and, though celebrated for their literary acquisitions, their ideas are frequently confined, and disguised with many peculiarities: but this must be understood of such only as constantly live at home; those who have travelled being by no means inferior to the natives of any other country, either in liberality of sentiment, or generosity of spirit.

A sense of religion and morality pervades the lower ranks in a very high degree. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave respectfully to their superiors, and to observe the most rigid œconomy: hence their money is saved; their constitutions are unimpaired; and very few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious offences, occur in Scotland.

The Scotch affect the greatest veneration for the memory of their progenitors; nor are they less attached to ancient customs, dresses, and diversions. The inhabitants of those parts of the country where tending of flocks is much practised, generally possess a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject; and many of their airs, with variations, have been introduced on the English stage under new names; but, though thereby rendered more conformable to the rules of harmony, they are frequently altered for the worse, being stripped of that original simplicity which is their most essential characteristic, and which is so agreeable to the ear, and has such an influence over the human breast.

The common people in Scotland, with respect to their funeral rites, still retain the solemn decent manner of their ancestors. When any person dies at the years of maturity, the parish-beadle is sent round with a passing-bell, stopping at certain places; and, with a slow, melancholy tone, announcing the name of the party deceased, and the time fixed for his interment, to which he invites all the neighbours. The funeral procession is sometimes preceded by the magistrates, and their officers: and the coffin is covered with a black velvet pall, and carried on chair-poles to the grave, where it is interred without any farther ceremony than the nearest relations thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals, however, of the nobility and gentry, are conducted nearly in the same manner as in England, but without the burial-service. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by



SCENE IN THE HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND.

Whithed as the Art direct's by Harison & C^o Jan's 1783.

by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called coronachs, accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both sexes; but this custom is now become obsolete.

Dancing seems to be one of the most favourite amusements of the Scotch; but little regard is paid by the vulgar either to art or gracefulness, the whole consisting in agility, and in keeping time with the music, which they perform with great exactness. One of the principal diversions of the gentry, called the goff, which is played with a bat and ball, requires an equal degree of art and strength. The bat becomes gradually taper till it terminates in that part with which the ball is struck, where it is loaded with lead, and faced with horn; and the ball is smaller and harder than a cricket-ball. This diversion resembles that of the mall, which was much in vogue in England about the middle of the last century. An expert player at the goff will with one stroke of his bat send the ball to an astonishing distance: each person follows his own ball; and he who, with the fewest strokes, first strikes it into a hole made for its reception, is accounted conqueror.

The Highlanders dress in a very singular manner. Their upper garment, called a plaid, and to which they give the name of tartan, is composed of striped woollen stuff of various colours, the stripes intersecting each other at right-angles; and the natives value themselves much on the judicious arrangement of these stripes and colours, which sometimes produce a very pleasing effect. This plaid, which is commonly twelve yards wide, is in general thrown over the shoulder after the manner of the Roman toga, as represented on ancient statues; though it is sometimes fastened round the waist with a belt, part of it hanging down both behind and before like a petticoat, and supplying the want of breeches. Their waistcoats are also made of plaid; and sometimes they wear a kind of short petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist, to which they give the appellation of a philibeg. Their stockings are likewise composed of tartan stuff, or plaid, and tied below the knee with garters of the same, formed into tassels. The poorer sort of people wear a kind of shoes made of untanned leather, which are called brogues; with blue bonnets of a particular woollen manufacture. In the belt of the philibeg they usually have a knife, dagger, and pistol; exclusive of their broad-swords, which were introduced in the reign of James III. and a large leather purse usually hangs before them.

The dress of the Highland women generally consists of a kind of jerkin with straight sleeves, trimmed according to the quality of the wearer; over which they spread a plaid, held close under their chins with their hands, or fastened with a buckle of a particular construction; and their heads are covered with kerchiefs of fine linen of different shapes.

Such was formerly the attachment of the Highlanders to their dress, that it appeared dangerous to government, by proving a bond of union between those who wore it. Many efforts were accordingly made to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the dresses of the Lowlanders; and, at last, after the battle of Culloden, a convenient opportunity offered for bringing them to the desired submission. The conveniency, however, of their dress for the purposes of the field, is so great, that some of the Highland regiments still retain it; and, indeed, the common people have of late resumed it, for which they have now every requisite sanction.

In the Lowlands, the higher and middling ranks differ very little from the English in their dress: but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, on account of its cheapness and lightness.

The language of the Highlanders, especially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, is radically Celtic. The English spoken by the Scotch, notwithstanding its provincial articulations, is written exactly alike in both kingdoms. At present, indeed, the pronunciation of a native of Scotland differs little more from that of a native of London, than the pronunciation of a citizen of London differs from that of an inhabitant of Somersetshire or Worcesterhire.

It appears pretty evident that Christianity was first promulgated in Scotland by some of the disciples of St. John the Apostle, who took refuge in this remote part of the world in order to avoid the persecution of the Roman Emperor Domitian; but it was not publicly received and professed till the beginning of the third century, when Donald I. his queen, and several of his principal nobility, were solemnly baptized. It was farther strengthened by emigrations from England during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, when it became the general persuasion of the country under the management of a society of learned and pious men named Culdees, whose principal seat was St. Andrew's.

Thus Christianity appears to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed, independent of the Church of Rome; and to have flourished in all its native simplicity till the arrival of Paladius, an emissary of the Bishop of Rome, in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of that church, when Scotland became involved in that gloom which for many years overspread Europe.

Soon after the Reformation took place in England, and learning, arts, and sciences, began to revive in Europe, the absurdities of the Romish church, and the profligacy of her clergy, did not escape the notice of a free and enquiring people; and gave rise to the Reformation in Scotland, which began in the reign of James V. made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, (though both of them were Roman Catholics) and at last was accomplished through the labours of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrine of Calvin, and was become the apostle of Scotland. It is highly probable that the reformers expected to succeed to the revenues of the church they had laboured to destroy; but the great nobility, who had parcelled out these possessions among themselves, monopolized all the church-livings, and left the reforming clergy almost in a state of beggary. Succeeding times, however, rendered the Presbyterian clergy of the utmost importance to the state; and, in consequence thereof, their stipends have been so much augmented, that though no one enjoys more than two hundred pounds sterling a year, few fall short of sixty, and none of fifty.

It is unnecessary to enlarge on the doctrinal and oeconomic part of the church of Scotland: suffice it to observe, that its first principle is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among its presbyters; that it agrees with the reformed churches abroad, in the chief heads of opposition to popery; and that it was modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the General Assembly; which may be termed the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some
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of whom are laymen, under the appellation of Ruling Elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. Those commissioners are elected annually; and over them the king presides, in the person of a nobleman stiled Lord Commissioner, but who has no vote in the assembly. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to this convention, and it's acts are decisive. Subordinate to this assembly are fifteen Provincial Synods, composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries; but their decrees are liable to be reversed by the General Assembly. Next to the provincial synods are the Presbyteries, of which Scotland contains sixty-nine, composed of a certain number of contiguous parishes; and the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory is the Kirk-session, the authority of which does not extend beyond the bounds of it's own parish.

But though the established religion of Scotland is Presbyterianism, there are many different sectaries; some of which pretend to extraordinary purity, though hardly two congregations of the same sect agree either in their principles or practice. Many, however, profess Episcopacy; and in some parts of the country, the chapels, as they are called, are nearly as well filled as the Presbyterian kirks: but the defection of some great families from the cause of Popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered the votaries of the Romish Church very inconsiderable in Scotland; such who still remain being generally confined to the more northern parts, and extremely quiet and inoffensive in their demeanour.

Scotland has produced such an illustrious train of learned men, that to particularize them would be to give a literary history of Europe for upwards of fourteen hundred years. The Poems of Ossian afford sufficient evidence that the Muses were no strangers to this climate in very remote ages; and the writings of Adamnarus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the conquest of England, which are still extant, are respectable specimens of their literature at that period. The noble discovery of logarithms, the indisputable right of the ingenious Napier of Marchieston, both in point of ingenuity and utility, may justly vie with any other invention of more modern times; and, ever since that æra, mathematical studies have been prosecuted in Scotland, and indeed in Europe in general, with facility and success. But the reputation of Scotland is not confined to one branch of knowledge only; it has produced men eminent in all sciences; and many of it's present authors are capable of disputing the palm of genius with the most learned of their predecessors.

Scotland contains four universities; namely, St. Andrew's, founded in the year 1411; Glasgow, founded in 1454; Aberdeen, founded in 1477; and Edinburgh, founded in 1528. In these illustrious seminaries literature flourishes divested of the ostentation of rich endowments; the professors are all men eminent in their respective departments; and the students generally conduct themselves with a propriety and decency of deportment becoming well informed and well regulated minds.

The antiquities in Scotland are principally Druidical, Pictish, Danish, and Roman. Of the former there are many monuments and temples still discernible in the northern parts, and particularly in the islands, where probably Paganism took it's last refuge. The stations of the Roman legions, their castellas, and their pretentures, or walls, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some recent discoveries, an account of them could afford no instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant.

Roman

Roman coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of antiquity, have been discovered in different parts of Scotland; but these, indeed, are common to every country into which the Romans carried their arms.

Danish camps and fortifications are very distinguishable, by their square figures and difficult situations, in several northern counties of Scotland. Some houses of stupendous appearance still remain in Ross-shire; but whether they are Danish, Pictish, or Scottish, is uncertain. Two columnal monuments of a very extraordinary construction, and generally ascribed to the Picts, are still standing; the one at Abernethy, in Perthshire; and the other at Brechin, in Angus: each of them is hollow in the inside, and externally furnished with a stair-case.

The vestiges of ancient Scottish erections are not only curious, but instructive; as they elucidate many important events of the history of that people, who evidently possessed some rude notions of sculpture, by means of which they recorded the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, are four or five ancient obelisks, for the purpose of commemorating the victories of the Scotch over the Danes; each of which is adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics unintelligible at this distance of time. Many other historical monuments may be traced in different places; but the obscurity of their sculptures having opened a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures, their interpretations are more frequently fanciful than just.

Scotland, however, if we except its lakes, rivers, and mountains, affords but few natural curiosities. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is remarkable for a petrifying cave; from the roof of which water continually oozes through a spongy, porous rock; and, on reaching the bottom, is immediately consolidated. Many other natural curiosities have intruded themselves into the various descriptions and histories of Scotland; but as they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, they of course vanish before the eye of philosophic enquiry.

The commerce and manufactures of Scotland have for some years past been in a very improving state. After the extinction of the rebellion of 1745, Mr. Pelham, then at the head of the English administration, was the first minister who discovered the true value of Scotland to the British government; and the bounties and encouragements granted to the Scotch, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his administration, made them sensible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt followed Mr. Pelham's prudent plan; and the Scotch have since been permitted to avail themselves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures which they can reasonably claim, either in virtue of their former independency, the treaty of union, or posterior acts of parliament.

The fisheries of Scotland are extremely beneficial, not only to that country, but to the British nation in general; but, notwithstanding the encouragement granted by government, and the spirited exertions of individuals, they have neither been so lucrative nor so successful as might have been expected. The benefits of these fisheries are indeed equalled, if not exceeded, by several extensive manufactures; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingshire. The linen manufacture is also extremely flourishing; and that of Scotch thread is equal, if not superior, to any in the world. Many other manufactures begin

to

to be carried on with success; and, indeed, commerce has lately taken such a rapid turn in Scotland, that the face of the country and the manners of the people have undergone a considerable alteration.

The current money in England and Scotland is exactly the same; except that, among the vulgar of the latter nation, sums of money are computed by pounds of twenty-pence sterling, and by marks of thirteen-pence halfpenny each.

The only order of knighthood in Scotland is that of the Thistle; instituted, as the Scottish writers assert, during the ninth century, by King Acabus, on his concluding an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne of France. It consists of the sovereign; and twelve companions, called Knights of the Thistle, bearing on their ensign this significant motto, '*Nemo me impune lacessit*—None shall provoke me with impunity.'

By the ancient constitution of Scotland, the power of the king was extremely limited; and there were many checks laid upon him, in order to prevent his assuming despotic authority. But this form of government, though highly applauded by many, favoured too much of aristocracy to afford the common people that liberty they had a right to expect. The king's authority, indeed, was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had too many opportunities of oppressing and tyrannizing over their clients and tenants; and, in short, the feudal system was exercised in all its horrors and barbarity.

The civil principles of justice in Scotland are in a great measure founded on Justinian's Institutions; and the mode of proceeding in the different courts of law is much less vexatious and tedious than that generally practised in England. However, an appeal lies from the highest court of judicature in Scotland, in matters of property, to the House of Lords in England.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, is supposed to have been founded by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territories reached to the Frith of Forth; and it is certain that it did not fall into the hands of the Scotch till the reign of Indulphus, in 953. The Castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed impregnable; and as the town was built contiguous for the benefit of receiving protection from it in time of war, a more convenient situation for a capital can hardly be conceived.

The High Street of Edinburgh is one of the most magnificent in the world, being of an uncommon length, and lined on each side with houses of a surprizing elevation. It gradually ascends from the palace of Holyrood House on the east, till it is terminated on the west by the Castle, built on a lofty, and almost inaccessible rock.

The Palace of Holyrood House, or the Abbey, as it is sometimes called, stands at the distance of a mile from the Castle. Its modern improvements were begun by King James V. and finished by Charles I. according to the plan of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of distinction, and unquestionably one of the greatest architects of his age.

Among other celebrated structures, is that called Herriot's Hospital, perhaps the finest and most regular specimen of architecture which Inigo Jones has left us in his Gothic style; the University; the Parliament Close; the High Church, dedicated to St. Giles; and the Exchange.

Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and capital tradesmen, have begun to build a new town, on a plan which does honour to the present age.

The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity; and the houses are built of free-stone, in an elegant taste, and furnished with every convenience which renders those of England so delightful and commodious. The fronts of some of them, which are superbly finished, display at once the taste of the designers and the public spirit of the proprietors.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailiffs, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually elected from the common-council. There are fourteen companies, or incorporated trades, each of which chuses it's own deacon. The lord provost, besides other very extensive powers, is colonel of the Town-guard; a military institution at once honourable and beneficial, as it serves to watch the city, and patrol the streets; and is besides extremely useful in suppressing occasional commotions, and attending the execution of capital delinquents. Besides this guard, the city of Edinburgh maintains sixteen companies of trained bands, which answer all the purposes of a militia.

Leith, standing at the distance of two miles from Edinburgh, may be properly called the harbour of that city, being under the same jurisdiction: it, however, contains nothing remarkable.

In the vicinity of Edinburgh are many noble seats, and others are daily erecting. The most admired is that of the Earl of Abercorn, at a small distance from the city; that of the Duke of Buccleugh, at Dalkeith; that of the Marquis of Lothian, at Newbottle; and Hope-ton House, so called from the earl of that name, it's owner. Roslin, situated at the distance of four miles from Edinburgh, is famous for it's stately Gothic chapel, founded by William St. Clair, Prince of Orkney, and Duke of Oldenburg, in the year 1440; and is esteemed one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe,

Glasgow, the capital of the shire of Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity on the banks of the Clyde, about forty-four miles west of Edinburgh, for population, commerce, and opulence, is certainly the second city in Scotland; and, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of which it is built, it is, perhaps, the first in Great Britain. The streets, which intersect each other at right-angles, are broad, straight, well-paved, and remarkably clean. The houses, which are in general four or five stories high, have a very grand appearance; and, towards the centre of the city, many of them are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of uncommon magnificence. The Cathedral, a stupendous Gothic pile, upwards of six hundred years old, dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, Bishop of Glasgow, during the sixth century, and divided into three churches, is adorned with a very fine spire, and esteemed a very masterly, and even matchless fabric. The Town House is a very stately structure, and furnished with noble apartments for the accommodation of the magistrates. And the University, which is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland, is at present in a very flourishing condition.

Glasgow has several well-endowed hospitals; and is extremely well supplied with large and commodious inns. It also contains seven churches, besides upwards of ten meetings for sectaries of various denominations; and the number of it's inhabitants has been estimated at fifty thousand.

Aberdeen, which is unquestionably the third city in Scotland both for improvement and

and population, is the capital of a shire to which it gives name; and includes two towns, New Aberdeen, and Old Aberdeen, both independent of each other. New Aberdeen, which is large and well-built, contains three churches, several Episcopal meeting-houses, a well-frequented university, and about fifteen thousand inhabitants; and carries on a considerable foreign trade. Old Aberdeen, though near a mile distant from, is almost united to New Aberdeen by means of a long village: it is a pretty large market-town; but has no haven. In each of the above places is a well-endowed university, or college.

Perth, the capital of a county bearing the same name, is delightfully situated on the River Tay, and carries on a considerable trade to Norway and the Baltic. Dundee, which lies near the mouth of the Tay, is a town of considerable trade, and contains about ten thousand inhabitants. Montrose, Aberbrothwic, and Brechin, lie in the county of Angus: the former enjoys a flourishing foreign trade; and the manufactures of the other two are in a thriving condition. Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Stirling, and Paisley, with several other towns and boroughs of inferior note, carry on a very extensive trade, and are in a very improving state.

The ancient Scotch entertained a peculiar pride in trusting to their own valour, rather than to fortified places, for the defence of their country. This maxim, however, was more heroic than prudent, as has often been experienced; and, indeed, even at this time, their forts could make but a very poor resistance, if regularly attacked. The castles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, though formerly reputed impregnable, would not now be capable of holding out for any considerable length of time, if besieged by a resolute army provided with proper artillery. Fort William and Fort George may be capable of bridling the inhabitants of their respective neighbourhoods; but neither of them can be considered as places of sufficient defence against a foreign enemy.

It appears, from the most incontestible authorities, that Scotland was originally inhabited by different tribes. The Caledonians were probably the first inhabitants; the Picts were unquestionably the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls; and the Scots were probably a race of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in the armies on the continent; and, as was frequently the case, communicated their own name to the country they had subdued. The ancient history of Scotland, however, is so much involved in fable, that it is difficult to fix the æra of genuine narration. The historians of that country present us with a series of princes, many of whom they extol for virtue, policy, and valour, from a much earlier period than any records will warrant. Passing over, therefore, the ages of romance and invention, as well as those periods in which the Scottish history is by no means interesting, we come to the reign of Edward I. of England; who being desirous of annexing Scotland to his crown, revived some obsolete and absurd claims of its dependency upon England; and finding that Baliol, a competitor for royalty, was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, gave him his interest, though he afterwards dethroned and treated him as a slave.

Thus circumstanced, the Scotch had nothing to trust to but their national bravery, the number of their zealous patriots being but few. Edward availed himself of their weakness

ness and his own power; and having compelled Baliol to make a formal surrender of his crown, confined him a prisoner in England; and committed to different prisons in London and its vicinity every Scotch nobleman whom he suspected of disaffection to his views.

These severe and arbitrary proceedings, while they rendered this people sensible of their slavery, revived in them all their wonted ideas of freedom. The Scotch patriots under the command of the illustrious Sir William Wallace, the most magnanimous hero of his age, conspired to expel the English tyrants, and once more to liberate their native country from despotism. Wallace accordingly engaged the English, and totally defeated them in several battles: but being suspected of aiming at sovereignty, he was basely betrayed by his own party; and, after having performed various feats of patriotism and glory which were probably never exceeded, he was barbarously put to death by Edward as a traitor.

Edward I. the most ambitious and warlike monarch of his age, dying about this time, Robert Bruce, the son of that Bruce who had been formerly a competitor with Baliol for the Scottish crown, escaping from the English court, where he was a prisoner at large, formed the glorious resolution of vindicating his country's independency, or of dying in the attempt. The difficulties he underwent in this noble design were almost beyond the bounds of credibility; and the fortitude with which he bore the most complicated ills, and the most trying misfortunes, will probably ever remain unique in history. Though opposed by the most powerful army which the King of England could collect, he gained the signal victory of Bannockburn in 1314; in which only thirty thousand Scotch were drawn up in battle array against a body of one hundred thousand English, fifty thousand of whom were left dead on the field of battle.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of the most glorious successes; and so well did his nobility understand the principles of civil and religious liberty, that, in a letter transmitted to the Pope, they avowed their having set aside Baliol, on account of his having debased the crown of Scotland by holding it in subjection to that of England; and declared that they would treat Robert Bruce in the same manner, if he should pursue a similar conduct.

The Scotch may be said to have been in the zenith of their glory under Robert I. who died in 1328, after concluding an advantageous peace with England. His son, David II. was a virtuous prince; but his political abilities were greatly eclipsed by those of his brother-in-law, and enemy, Edward III. of England; who being as intent on the conquest of Scotland as any of his predecessors, notwithstanding this natural alliance, levied war against David; who, after repeated defeats, was taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham; and, after continuing eleven years in captivity, paid one hundred thousand marks for his ransom.

David II. dying in 1371, without issue, the crown of Scotland devolved on the Stuart family, the head of which had been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of this line was Robert II. a brave and politic prince: he was succeeded by his son Robert III. whose age and infirmities disqualifying him for the exercise of sovereign power, he resigned his government in favour of his brother the Duke of Albany, an ambitious prince,

prince, who seems to have meditated the making of the crown hereditary in his own family. Robert, on this, attempted to send his second son to France; but having been ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England, he suffered a long captivity, and at last was obliged to pay an exorbitant sum for his ransom. This prince, (James I.) on his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government; enacted many salutary laws; and possessed the affections of his subjects in a very high degree: but having attempted, with more justice than prudence, to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to refine the feudal system from its gross imperfections, he fell a martyr to his patriotism, having been murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility in the forty-fourth year of his age.

His son James II. a minor, succeeded him; who would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been accidentally killed by the bursting of a cannon, as he was besieging the Castle of Roxburgh, then defended by the English, in the thirteenth year of his age.

The most effeminate vices stained the character of James III. His turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects; and he was himself slain in battle, in the year 1488, at the age of thirty-five.

James IV. his son and successor, was the most accomplished prince of his age: but having entertained an unfortunate predilection for the French, he rashly espoused their cause; and was slain, together with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, in the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son James V. was long and turbulent; and his maturer years were strongly marked with disaster. He was equally unfortunate in his connections and pursuits; and, falling under the displeasure of his subjects, was shamefully deserted by his troops, and died soon after of a broken heart, in 1542.

Mary, his daughter and successor, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, misconduct, and misfortunes, are alike famous in history. In her minority, she espoused her own cousin-german, Francis II. of France, then Lord Darnley; whose premature death has given rise to much controversy. The consequence of his death, as well as of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects; to avoid the effects of which, she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years; and afterwards beheaded by Queen Elizabeth, in 1586, and in the forty-sixth year of her age.

James VI. of Scotland, the son of Mary, succeeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. to the English crown, on the demise of Queen Elizabeth, after having shewn considerable abilities for the exercise of regal power in Scotland. Since that period, the history of Scotland has become united with that of England; though the incorporate union, as it now stands, did not take place till the reign of Queen Anne.

CHAP. II.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

IN order to avoid prolixity, we shall comprehend under one head the islands of Shetland; Orkney; and the Hebrides, or Western Isles.

The Shetland Isles lie north-east of the Orkneys, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude; and constitute a part of the shire of Orkney.

The Orkney Isles, or the Orcades, lie north of Dungsbyhead, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; and are divided from the continent by Pentland Firth.

The Hebrides, or Western Isles, which are very numerous, and some of them pretty large, are situated on the west of Scotland, between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

The variation of climate between these several divisions of islands is hardly perceptible; the air in each being keen, piercing, and salubrious. During the summer months, the nights are very luminous in the Shetland and Orkney Islands, and the intercourse of the natives with those of the continent is very frequent; but no sooner does winter set in, than fogs, storms, and darkness, render navigation not only dangerous, but almost impracticable.

The Shetland Islands are about forty-six in number; but many of them are uninhabited. Mainland, the largest, is about sixty miles long, and twenty broad; and Larwick, its principal town, contains about three hundred families.

Pomona, the largest of the Orkney Islands, (of which there are about thirty, though not all inhabited) is twenty-four miles long, and about nine broad; and contains nine parish-churches, and four excellent harbours.

The Hebrides, which are composed of many spacious isles, intermixed with barren rocks, have never yet been numbered with precision. The Isle of Mull, which is twenty-four miles long, and in some places as many broad, is esteemed one of the finest and most fertile of any in this division; though it only contains two parishes. Lewis, or Harries, belonging to the shire of Ross, is nearly an hundred miles long, and fourteen broad at a medium. Sky, an appendant of the county of Inverness, is forty miles long, and between twenty and thirty broad; and is fertile and populous. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and four broad, is principally famous for the Castle of Rothesay, which formerly gave the title of Duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland; as it does now to the Prince of Wales. Isla and Jura constitute a part of Argyleshire, but contain no towns worthy of notice. Iona, which is still venerable for having been the seat and sanctuary of learning when barbarism had over-run the rest of Europe, contains the remains of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway; and is also famous for its reliques of sanctimonious antiquity. St. Kilda, the most remote of all the north-west islands, seems to derive its celebrity chiefly from its romantic situation, and the simplicity of its inhabitants, among whom the value of money is very little known. The rest of the Hebrides are at present of small importance, either to

to their proprietors or the public ; though, from the valuable and improveable fisheries on their coasts, their consequence may probably be increased at a future period.

The natives of the above isles, with respect to their persons and manners, differ very little from those of the continent, except that they are more simple, more ignorant, and more superstitious. The lower class subsist principally on butter, cheese, fish, and fowl ; their common beverage being whey, which they ferment in such a manner as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern isles the Norwegian language is still spoken ; and, from their intercourse with the Dutch during the fishing season, the dialect of that nation is pretty familiar in the Orkney and Shetland Isles. From the strict temperance invariably practised by these islanders, many complaints, which embitter the lives of the luxurious, are altogether unknown among them : the scurvy and jaundice, the principal diseases to which they are obnoxious, being generally cured by means of the powder of snail shells, and scurvy-grass ; both of which these islands produce in great plenty.

The Protestant religion, according to the discipline of the Church of Scotland, is the regular establishment of those islands : but many families, in the Hebrides at least, still profess that of the Church of Rome ; and, indeed, superstition, the natural offspring of ignorance, is universally prevalent among the lower ranks.

It is very evident from history, that these islands were once infinitely more populous than they are at present ; the Hebrides alone, in former ages, having been capable of sending ten thousand armed men into the field, without prejudice to agriculture ; whereas the whole number of inhabitants at present is not supposed to exceed forty-five thousand.

In the Hebrides, the ancient usages of the Celts may still be traced ; and, as the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are continually gaining ground in the Highlands, it is probable that the descendants of the ancient Caledonians will in a few years be discernible only in the Hebrides. The Hebridians have still their *shanachies*, or story-tellers, who supply the place of the bards so famous in ancient history ; they preserve the most profound respect and affection for their chieftains ; they cultivate the science of music with peculiar attention ; and indulge themselves in that romantic poetical turn which is equally an enemy to industry and affluence. To this natural indolence of disposition, and abstraction from the world, may be attributed that remarkable quality for which the inhabitants of the Hebrides have been famed ; namely, *mantology*, or the second sight, as it is generally called. To attempt to disprove the reality of the various instances of this kind which have been adduced by respectable authors, might seem equally as absurd as to admit all that has been said on the subject for genuine truth. The adepts of the second sight, who pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather representations, swimming before their eyes, of events which are to happen in the space of a few hours, immediately begin to prophesy ; and, among many thousands of their predictions, it would be strange indeed if some few of them did not take place.

Though natural philosophy may be unable to account for the cause, it is certain that the soil, both in the northern and western islands of Scotland, has undergone an amazing alteration. Many of these islands evidently appear to have been the habitations of the
Druids ;

Druids; whose temples, which are still visible in several places, were certainly surrounded by groves, though a single tree is now regarded as a curiosity. This defect of vegetable beauty and luxuriance, however, is by no means to be imputed either to the sterility of the soil, or to the inclemency of the sky; but arises solely from the decrease of riches, power, and population: those spots which have been properly cultivated, producing corn, vegetables, and trees, in abundance.

The staple commodities of these islands are fish and feathers; in the latter of which articles many of the islanders pay their rents, so little is the value and use of money known among them. Nothing, however, is wanting to render them at once ornamental and beneficial to the mother-country, as well as to the inhabitants, but some little share of application and industry on the part of the natives, and public encouragement from government.

The churches, forts, and other buildings, both sacred and civil, exhibit many striking proofs of what has been already remarked; namely, that these islands were formerly by far more rich and populous than they are at present. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of the Druidical temples still remaining in them; some of which are stupendous erections, and of the same nature as those of the famous Stonehenge, near Salisbury; while others appear to be the memorials of particular persons or actions, and consist only of one large stone, in an erect position. Barrows, as they are called in England, are extremely common; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications well deserve the examination of the curious antiquarian. The gigantic bones found in many graves give colour to a belief that the former inhabitants were considerably larger than the present: and, from some ancient remains, it appears sufficiently evident that the Romans were no strangers in these parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, has generally been regarded as a singularly beautiful and magnificent fabric. Its roof is supported by fourteen large pillars on each side; and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four of superior dimensions. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed and elegantly flowered.

But every religious structure or curiosity in these islands falls infinitely short of what the celebrated Isle of Iona, or St. Columb-Kill, contains. We shall not, however, enter into the history or the origin of the religious erections on this island; suffice it to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary to St. Columba, and other holy and learned men, at a time when England, Scotland, and Ireland, were desolated by barbarism. The church of St. Mary, in this island, is a beautiful fabric; and contains the bodies of many Irish, Scotch, and Norwegian sovereigns; with several Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, however, is totally uninscribed. The steeple of the church is large; the doors and windows are curiously carved; and the altar is composed of the finest marble.

Indeed, the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies apparent in this island are almost innumerable; but most of them are either but little regarded, or very difficult to be explained. Some of its most astonishing natural curiosities, however, which had long remained undescribed, have lately been elucidated by Sir Joseph Banks; who, in relating his voyage through

through the Hebrides in 1772, says—‘We were no sooner arrived at Staffa, than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, on the most sanguine foundations; the whole length of that island being supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves: upon a firm basis of solid unformed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness, as the island itself formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which overhung the columns below, forming an ample pediment; some of these above sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed by the sloping of the hill on each side almost in the shape of those used in architecture.’

Mr. Banks particularizes sundry other appearances in this and the neighbouring island, which are wholly composed of pillars without any stratum. In some parts of Staffa, the pillars, instead of being placed upright, were observed to lie on their sides, each forming the segment of a circle. But the most striking object in this field of scenery is Fingal’s Cave, which Mr. Banks thus describes. ‘We proceeded along the shore, treading upon another Giant’s Causeway, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broke off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles with precision, and at the same time to vary the colour with a great deal of elegance; and, to render it still more agreeable, the hole is lighted from without; so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without; and the air within, being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tides, is perfectly dry and wholesome, and entirely free from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound.’

CH A P. III.

IRELAND.

IRELAND is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees of west longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees of north latitude. The greatest length of this kingdom is found to be about two hundred and ninety miles, and it’s greatest breadth an hundred and sixty.

The name of this island is probably derived from a Phœnician or Gaulic term, signifying, The remotest habitation westward: but, to enter into a detail of the various conjectures which have been formed on this head, would neither afford instruction nor entertainment to the reader.

The climate of Ireland differs very little from that of England, excepting that it is more moist. The soil, though rocky, is extremely fertile where it has been properly cultivated;

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pasturage,

pasturage, tillage, and meadow-ground, every where abound; but, till lately, agriculture has not been duly encouraged.

Geographers vary in their general divisions of Ireland; some describing it as consisting of five circuits; and others, of four provinces, viz. those of Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster. Following this last division, as being the most ancient, as well as the most common, Leinster contains twelve counties; Ulster, nine; Connaught, five; and Munster, six.

The face of the country is considerably beautified and enriched by the numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, spacious bays, commodious harbours, havens, and creeks, which every where present themselves. Among the rivers of Ireland, the Shannon, the Ban, the Boyne, the Liffy, the Barrow, the Noer, and the Suire, are the most considerable. The principal lakes are situated in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught, and afford abundance of fish; and the great Lake Neagh, which lies between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying qualities.

Ireland, when compared with many other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iseah, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom; and that of Slieu-Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of one thousand and fifty-six yards. Ireland, however, contains several other mountains; though, if we except the fabulous stories annexed to some of them, they are by no means remarkable.

The chief forests in Ireland are situated in the county of Leinster, the King's and Queen's counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. In the county of Ulster likewise, in that of Donegall in the north part of Tyrone, and in the county of Fermanagh, are extensive tracts of woodland, which produce several kinds of excellent timber, particularly oak, which is esteemed equal to any of English growth.

The Irish mines are but late discoveries: several of them, however, contain silver and lead, and it is said that thirty pounds of the latter will yield one pound of the former. Copper-mines, as well as iron-ore, excellent marble, porphyry, coals, and slates, have also been discovered in this kingdom.

Ireland is not remarkable for any animals peculiar to itself. It was formerly infested with wolves; but these have been long since exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, shaped like greyhounds, and gentle and tractable as spaniels.

This kingdom has been supposed by some to contain about a million and a half of inhabitants; but this calculation is certainly exaggerated: for, if we consider the vast numbers which have been cut off in war, and the emigrations which are daily taking place, its population cannot surely be in a very flourishing condition.

With regard to the national character of the Irish, the present descendants of the aborigines are ignorant, uncivilized, and violent in all their affections, to a very high degree; but the other inhabitants, who principally derive their extraction from English and Scotch adventurers, possess almost the same qualities and peculiarities.

The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient Britons, as described by the Roman writers. They inhabit mean huts raised with clay and straw, and partitioned



partitioned in the middle by walls of the same materials. In one of these rooms the family live promiscuously; and the other is generally occupied by a cow, which constitutes a principal part of their wealth. Their usual food consists of coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and sometimes fish; and their children, who are generally plump, robust, and hearty, and scarcely know either the use or want of cloaths, are not ashamed to appear in the public roads, and to gaze on strangers in that primitive manner. Thus immersed in indolence and misery, many thousands have been lost to the community and to themselves; who, had they been trained up to a knowledge of religion, and inured to diligence and labour, would have been a credit to themselves, as well as an advantage to the public.

The descendants of the Scotch and English, since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II. though not the most numerous, form the wealthiest part of the Irish nation: and these consist of the greatest part of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eastern and northern coasts, where most of the trade of Ireland is carried on. The gentry, in general, differ little, either in their language, dress, or manners, from those of the same rank in Britain, whom they closely imitate. Their hospitality is well known; though they have often been suspected of ostentation in the exercise of this virtue.

The ecclesiastical discipline and established religion of Ireland are exactly the same with those of England. In the more uncultivated parts, the bulk of the people are Roman Catholics, deeply tinged with the most absurd and illiberal maxims of that persuasion; and still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. However, the blind submission of the latter to their clergy does not prevent Protestantism from making a very rapid progress in their towns and communities. Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England; particularly Presbyterians, Baptists, and Quakers; who are all tolerated.

The archbishoprics of Ireland are four, viz. Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam. The bishoprics are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Killala, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, Kilmore, and Waterford.

The Irish language is fundamentally the same with the British and Welsh, and a dialect of the Celtic, used by the Scotch Highlanders opposite the Irish coasts; and, though in a great measure defaced by provincial alterations, the Irish, Welsh, and Highlanders, are nevertheless still intelligible to each other.

Learning seems to have been cultivated in this country at a very early period: and some of the Irish writers have roundly asserted, that their countrymen, from the remotest periods of antiquity, were a polished people, and that they might with propriety be called the Fathers of Letters. However that may be, it is certain that the Irish scholars of St. Patrick made such progress in the principles and practice of Christianity, that Ireland supplied almost every part of Europe at that time with learned and pious men.

In more modern times, the Irish have produced some few characters who deservedly stand high in the republic of letters. Archbishop Usher is an honour to literature itself; Dean Swift has, perhaps, never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and satire; the sprightliness of Farquhar's genius is well known to all lovers of the drama: and, among the men of most distinguished

distinguished genius whom Ireland has lately produced, the names of Steele, Berkley, Parnell, Sterne, and Goldsmith, ought not to be passed over in silence.

The only university in Ireland is that of Trinity College, which was founded and endowed by Queen Elizabeth; and, since her reign, has from time to time received considerable benefactions and augmentations. The provostship is supposed to be worth three thousand pounds a year; and the college possesses the power of conferring degrees in all the arts and faculties.

Ireland contains but few antiquities or natural curiosities. The moose-deer are thought to have been formerly natives of this island, from their horns having been dug up in different parts; particularly one pair, which was nearly eleven feet from the tip of the right-horn to that of the left. But the greatest natural curiosity in Ireland is the Giant's Causeway, in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, described by Dr. Pococke, late Bishop of Ossory, an ingenious antiquary, and a philosophic traveller; who informs us, that he measured the most westerly point at high-water, to the distance of three hundred and sixty feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low-water it extended sixty feet farther upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the eastern point, he found it five hundred and forty feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the east, and, like that, is lost in the ocean.

'The Causeway,' says the bishop, 'is composed of pillars, all of angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The eastern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints or stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about one foot in thickness; and, what is very singular, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and fitting in the most exact manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which separate very easily; and a person may walk along upon the top of the pillars as far as the water's edge.

This, however, is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity; the cliffs themselves being still more surprizing. From the bottom, which is of black stone, to the height of about sixty feet, they are divided, at equal distances, by stripes of a reddish stone, resembling a cement, about four inches in thickness. Upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum five inches thick of the red. Over this lies another stratum ten feet thick, divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone, twenty feet deep; and above that a stratum of upright pillars: above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimnies. The face of these cliffs extends about three English miles.'

The cavities, romantic prospects, cataracts, and other pleasing and surprizing natural objects, to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities. As to the artificial curiosities, the chief are the round pharos, or stone-towers, found upon the coasts, and supposed

supposed to have been built by the Danes and Norwegians, who made use of them as spy-towers, light-houses, or beacons.

The Irish trade, notwithstanding the very liberal footing on which it has lately been established, is far from being in a flourishing condition; probably from the want of capital in the merchants to carry on a very extensive traffic to advantage, and that military madness which seems to pervade all ranks. The linen manufacture, however, is carried on with credit and success, though the Scotch are very formidable rivals to the Irish in that branch of trade.

Before the reign of Henry VIII. the king of England's title was no more than Lord of Ireland: however, that monarch assumed the title of King, which was recognized by acts of parliament of the same reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the same kingdom, though they differ with respect to their municipal laws; so England and Ireland are distinct kingdoms, though they in general agree in their civil institutions: for, after the conquest of Ireland by Henry II. the laws of England were received and sworn to by the Irish nation assembled at the council of Lismore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted and governed, still continued in a state of dependence, it was deemed necessary that it should be obliged to conform to such laws as the superior state thought proper to prescribe; but after the people of Ireland began to feel their own importance, and the manifold distresses of Britain rendered her unable to contend with them about the minutiae of prerogative, the British parliament found it expedient to repeal an act which had been passed in the reign of George I. by which it was declared that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent on, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inseparably united thereto.

The constitution of Ireland, with respect to distributive justice, is nearly the same as that of England. A chief governor, under the title of Lord Lieutenant, is sent over from England by the king, whom he represents. He has a council composed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treasurer, and such of the archbishops, earls, bishops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majesty is pleased to nominate. The parliament, consisting of a House of Lords and Commons, is convened by the king's writ, and forms the supreme national court; but all laws enacted by the Irish parliament must be sent to England for the royal approbation, in order to their becoming valid.

The public revenues of Ireland arise from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee for applying them to particular purposes. But, besides these duties, there is a private revenue arising from the ancient demesne lands, from forfeitures for treason and felony, prisage of wines, light-house duties, and a small part of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament. The whole revenue is supposed to exceed half a million sterling; about 70,000*l.* of which is granted in pensions, and a great part to absentees: however, large sums are also voted by their own parliament, for the improvement of their country, and the civilization of its inhabitants.

The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and forms as those of England, except that an English shilling passes in Ireland for thirteen-pence.

Ireland maintains a considerable body of troops, who have often been of singular service

to England; and this force is now greatly increased by the many volunteer associated companies which have lately been formed in that kingdom.

The only order of knighthood in Ireland is that of St. Patrick, instituted in 1783, by letters patent passed under the great seal of Ireland. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen knights-companions; the lord-lieutenant of Ireland for the time being officiating as grand-master of the order. The robes of the knights are splendid; and they are installed in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin.

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, and with respect to magnitude, as well as the number of its inhabitants, which are supposed to be about two hundred thousand, the second city in the British dominions, stands about seven miles from the sea, at the bottom of a large and spacious bay on the River Liffy, which divides it into nearly two equal parts. The increase of the population of Dublin within these last twenty years is almost incredible; and it is generally allowed that seven thousand houses have been added to the city and suburbs since the reign of Queen Anne. In its general appearance, it very much resembles the city of London: the houses are built of brick; the old streets are narrow and mean, but the new are not less elegant than the generality of those in the metropolis of Great Britain.

The Liffy, though navigable as far as the centre of the city, is but an inconsiderable river when compared with the Thames at London. Two handsome stone bridges, however, have been lately built over it in imitation of that at Westminster; besides three others, which have little to recommend them.

The Barracks, which are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river, consist of four large courts, in which four battalions of foot and one regiment of horse are generally quartered; and from hence the castle and city guards are daily relieved. They are generally considered as the largest and most complete structure of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing three thousand foot and one thousand horse.

The other most remarkable buildings are the Parliament House, the Linen Hall, the Exchange, Trinity College, the Castle, the Theatres, the Royal Hospital for Invalids, and the Cathedral. The civil government of Dublin, like that of London, is vested in a lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, both with respect to magnitude and commerce. It lies one hundred and twenty-nine miles south-west of Dublin, and contains near nine thousand houses. Its haven is deep, and well sheltered from all winds; and its merchants carry on a very extensive trade.

Waterford, which takes precedence next to Cork, contains near three thousand houses. Its inhabitants are rich and commercial. This city is commanded by Duncannon Fort on one side, and by a citadel on the other.

Among other towns of note in Ireland may be ranked Kinsale, Limerick, Belfast, Downpatrick, Carrickfergus, Derry, and Donnegall. The inhabitants of these, and many other cities of less importance, are chiefly employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen-thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom, and the support of thousands who would otherwise be destitute of employment.

Were we to give credit to the writings of some Irish authors, who boast of the antiquity of

of their nation, we should there find a series of wise, brave, and politic princes, traced almost to antediluvian times. Waving, however, all enquiries of this nature, which, though interesting to the historian, do not fall within the limits of the geographer's researches, we shall only observe, that Ireland seems in early ages to have been parcelled out among several petty princes, who were continually engaged in intestine broils, and ignorant of all the softer acts of polished life and sound principles of government. The Saxon kings of England occasionally invaded their territories, and harrassed their coasts; and, about the year 798, the Danes and Easterlings made some considerable settlements on the coasts of Ireland, and erected the first stone edifices which had been seen in that kingdom.

During the twelfth century, Henry II. of England formed a design of entirely subjugating Ireland, and annexing it to his own dominions; for effecting which, the dissensions of the Irish princes furnished him with the most plausible pretences. He, however, met with a powerful opposition; but having reduced by force of arms several of the strongest towns, and having received the submission of some of the Irish princes, he declared himself paramount sovereign of Ireland: since which time, though various revolutions and rebellions have intervened, this country has still remained annexed to the crown of England. Indeed, the dependence of Ireland upon Great Britain at present appears to be but very slight. The Irish have lately asserted their liberties, and gained their point; but, still hurried on by the innovating spirit of universal reformation, and unable to discriminate between illiberal restrictions and unbounded toleration, they are likely to injure the cause for which they contend: and, instead of enjoying the privileges they have recently gained, they are still grasping at imaginary advantages; which, if acquired, would probably not answer any salutary purpose.

CHAP. IV.

ISLE OF MAN.

THIS island, lying in St. George's Channel, almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, has been considered by some as the Mona of Tacitus, though that name seems properly referred to the Isle of Anglesey, on the coast of Wales.

The Isle of Man is about thirty miles long, and from fifteen to eighteen broad; and, in the centre, it's latitude is 54 degrees 16 minutes north. The air is extremely salubrious; and, allowing for the situation, pretty much the same as in the north of England, from which indeed it differs very little in any respect. The mountainous parts are sterile; but the champain are fertile in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains which divides the island both protects and fertilizes the vallies. The whole island abounds with mines of copper, lead, and iron; and with quarries of marble, slate, and stone; but in general they are all equally disregarded.

Man

Man contains seventeen parishes : and four towns on the sea-coasts; **Castle-town**, the metropolis of the island, and the seat of it's government; **Peele**, which, of late years, has begun to flourish; **Douglas**, which has the best market, and carries on the most extensive trade of any town in the island; and **Ramsay**, which has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of it's spacious bay, in which vessels may ride safe from all winds except the north-east.

While the Scandinavian rovers infested the seas, this island was their rendezvous, and in it their chief force was collected; and from thence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in history; and though we have no regular account of their succession, and few of their names have been handed down to posterity, it is an unquestionable truth that, for some ages, they were masters of the surrounding seas. However, about the year 1263, Alexander II. King of Scotland, laid claim to the superiority of Man; and obliged Owen, or John, it's king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. From that time it seems to have continued tributary to the Scottish crown, till it was reduced by Edward I. of England. Still, however, we find the posterity of it's ancient Danish princes exercising internal jurisdiction over it till the reign of Edward III. who dispossessed the last queen of the island, and bestowed it on Montague, Earl of Salisbury, his favourite. His family honours and estates having been forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, together with the patronage of the bishopric, first on the Northumberland family; and, that also being forfeited, afterwards on Sir John Stanley, whose posterity, the Earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till by failure of male issue it devolved upon the Duke of Athol in Scotland, who married the sister of the last Lord Derby.

This island, from it's central situation, and being the storehouse of smugglers, proving of inexpressible prejudice to the public revenues, government found it expedient to purchase the customs and royalties of Man from the Duke of Athol, at the price of 70,000l.

The established religion in Man is that of the Church of England; and the Bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of other bishops, except a seat in the British House of Peers. The ecclesiastical government of this island is well regulated, and the livings of the clergy are comfortable. The language generally spoken by the common people, which is called the Manks, appears to be radically Erse, with an admixture of other tongues.

The natives of the Isle of Man, amounting to about twenty thousand, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable: the more opulent live in stone houses; while the poorer sort inhabit mud-cottages, covered with thatch. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange for commodities of foreign growth.

The principal curiosities of this island consist of Runic sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, with antique brass daggers, and other weapons of the same metal.

Before the south promontory of Man, there is a little island called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circumference, and is separated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad; but it contains nothing remarkable.

CHAP. V.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THE Isle of Wight lies opposite to the coast of Hampshire, of which it forms a part; its greatest length being twenty-three miles, and its breadth about thirteen. The air is generally esteemed healthy, particularly in the southern parts. The soil is various; but so great is its fertility, that it has been computed to produce as much wheat in one year as would be sufficient to supply its inhabitants for seven. A range of hills extends through the middle of the island from east to west, which afford excellent pasturage for sheep. The whole island affords the most beautiful and picturesque landscapes; not only in the pastoral, but also in the grand and romantic styles; and of those beauties the gentry appear to have availed themselves, not only in the choice of a situation for their seats, but also for other improvements. Indeed, such is the general purity of the air, and the beauty and variety of the prospects which every where obtrude themselves on the sight, that this island has sometimes obtained the appellation of the Garden of England; and is frequently visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The Isle of Wight is divided into thirty parishes; and, according to a very accurate calculation in 1777, contained at that time about eighteen thousand inhabitants.

Newport, standing in the centre of the island, may be considered as its capital. The River Medina discharges itself into the English Channel at Cowes, at the distance of about five miles; and, being navigable up to the quay, it is extremely commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west; are crossed at right-angles by three others; and are all of them spacious, clean, and well-paved.

Carisbrook Castle, in this island, is famous in history for having been the place of imprisonment of King Charles I. who took shelter in it, and was detained a prisoner for about a year. After the decollation of that monarch, it was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and in it his daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, paid the debt of nature.

CHAP. VI.

SCILLY ISLES.

THESE small islands and rocks, of which St. Mary's is the largest and most fertile, amount to about an hundred and forty, and are situated at the distance of about thirty miles from the Land's End. St. Mary's is about nine miles in circumference, has a good harbour, and is defended by a castle. The Isle of Scilly, which gives name to the rest, is likewise pretty considerable, and produces corn and pasturage. But many of them are little better than dangerous rocks, constantly overflowed by the spring-tides.

These islands, on account of their contiguity to the mouth of the English Channel, have

frequently proved fatal to many ships; for, notwithstanding every assistance from light-houses, as well as from the most skilful mariners, they are not to be approached in stormy weather without the most imminent danger. Here Sir Cloudefley Shovel, in the admiral's ship, with three other men of war, unfortunately ran on the rocks, on the 22d of October 1707, when their whole crews perished.

C H A P. VII.

JERSEY.

IN the English Channel, there are four islands subject to England; namely, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, part of the ancient Norman inheritance. These lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's Bay, between Cape La Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between Guernsey and Normandy, nine leagues.

Jersey, lying farthest within the bay, in 49 degrees 17 minutes north latitude, and in 2 degrees 26 minutes west longitude, is about twelve miles long. The air of this island is said to be so very healthful that, about a century ago, there was no business in it for any professors of the healing art.

The north side of Jersey, from its lofty cliffs, is quite inaccessible; the south is almost level with the water; and the higher land, in the interior parts, is well planted; and abounds with orchards, from the fruit of which an incredible quantity of cyder is annually made. The vallies, which are fertile, and well cultivated, feed abundance of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants, however, principally intent on the culture of apples, and the improvement of commerce, are rather remiss in the practice of agriculture. The honey of Jersey is remarkably fine; and the island is well supplied with almost every sort of fish and water-fowl.

The inhabitants consist of about twenty thousand. St. Helier, the capital town, contains about four hundred houses, which make a handsome appearance.

The property of this island formerly belonged to the Carterets, a Norman family, illustrious for their loyalty on all occasions; but particularly for affording protection to King Charles II. at a time when no other part of the British dominions dared to recognize him.

The natives of Jersey speak a kind of bastard French, with which they in general blend English words. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they also carry on a considerable trade to Newfoundland in fish, disposing of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor of the island is appointed by the crown of England; but the civil administration is vested in a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats.

As this island is the principal remainder of the Dutchy of Normandy dependent on the kings of England, it preserves many of the old feudal forms; and particularly the Assembly of States, which exhibits a picture of the British parliament in miniature, as settled by Edward I.

C H A P.

C H A P. VIII.

GUERNSEY.

THIS island is about thirteen miles and a half long, and about twelve and a half broad; and contains ten parishes, and about fifteen thousand inhabitants. Though Guernsey is a much finer island than Jersey, it is far less valuable; being neither so well cultivated, nor so populous. It abounds in cyder; but the scarcity of fuel is an insuperable inconvenience which this, as well as the before-mentioned island, labours under. The only harbour in Guernsey is that of St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts; the one called the Old Castle; and the other, Castle Cornet.

C H A P. IX.

ALDERNEY.

THE Island of Alderney, which is about eight miles in circumference, is separated from the continent of Normandy only by a narrow strait called the Race of Alderney, which is a very dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; in other respects it is pretty safe, and contains a depth of water sufficient for the largest ships. Here Sir John Balchen, in the Victory of one hundred guns, together with near twelve hundred men, besides officers, perished. The air of this island is esteemed peculiarly healthful; and the soil is remarkable for producing a very beautiful breed of neat cattle, some of which generally find a place in the finest parks belonging to the English nobility.

C H A P. X.

S A R K.

THIS is a small island dependent on Guernsey; the inhabitants of which, from the natural salubrity of the air, experience the blessings of health and longevity in a remarkable degree, together with every natural convenience.

The established religion of these four last described islands is that of the Church of England; though their inhabitants formerly professed the doctrines of Calvin.

C H A P.

CHAP. XI.

ICELAND.

THIS island, which receives its name from the immense masses of ice which are seen floating around it, lies between 63 and 67 degrees of north latitude, and between 11 and 27 degrees of west longitude; being four hundred miles in length, and one hundred and sixty in breadth.

The number of inhabitants, which is calculated at sixty thousand, is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. Indeed, the pestilence, and other contagious diseases, assisted by occasional famines, have repeatedly almost depopulated this island. The small-pox, in particular, has at different periods proved remarkably fatal to it; and, in the years 1707 and 1708, that loathsome distemper carried off no less than sixteen thousand persons.

The Icelanders are generally middle-sized, and well shaped, though not remarkable for their strength. They are characterized as an honest, faithful, and obliging race; hospitable to excess, and tolerably industrious. Their principal avocations consist in fishing and breeding of cattle. They are remarkably attached to their native country; and consider themselves as the happiest people on earth. Their dress, though neither elegant nor ornamental, is well adapted to the climate. Their houses are as mean as can well be conceived; and their food consists chiefly of dried fish and milk. Bread is so extremely scarce among them, that the peasants can hardly procure it during one quarter of the year.

Lutheranism is the only religion tolerated in Iceland; and the ministers of all the respective parishes, (one hundred and eighty-nine) who must be natives of the country, receive an annual stipend of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, exclusive of parochial benevolences.

The language of Iceland is the same as that formerly used in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark; and so pure has it been handed down from one generation to another, that the Icelanders are capable of explaining their most ancient traditional histories.

Though learning cannot be supposed to have made any considerable progress in this inhospitable clime, the Icelanders boast of their poets, historians, and divines: and no fewer than one hundred and sixty-two Icelandic manuscripts were lately presented to the British Museum by Sir Joseph Banks; who, with some learned and ingenious associates, visited this country in 1772.

This island, from its northern situation, might naturally be supposed to be exempted from those volcanoes and earthquakes which frequently annoy those of warmer climates. Iceland, however, suffered so much from these awful visitations in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, that the whole country was almost desolated. The volcano of Heckla is the best known, especially to foreigners. This mountain, which is situated in the southern part of the island, about four miles from the sea-coast, is divided into three points at the top; the highest of which, in the centre, being computed to be above five thousand feet
above

above the level of the sea. Its eruptions at different times have occasioned terrible devastations; the ashes having been sometimes thrown to the distance of one hundred and eighty English miles.

Among all the natural curiosities with which Iceland abounds, none are more worthy of attention than its hot spouting water-springs. The hot springs at Aix la Chapelle, Carlsbad, Bath, and various other places, are indeed very remarkable; but, except in Iceland, the water is no where so hot as to boil. The most celebrated artificial water-works fall infinitely short of the above, as well in the quantity of water emitted by them, as in the height to which it is thrown. Those at St. Cloud, in France, which are justly esteemed the most magnificent in Europe, cast up only one thin column of water eighty feet into the air; while some springs in Iceland spout columns, of the thickness of several feet, to the height of many fathoms; and, as some assert, of several hundred feet.

Geyser, the largest of all the spouting springs in Iceland, is situated at the distance of about two days journey from Hecla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a tremendous noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent precipitating itself from stupendous rocks. The water issues from this spring several times in one day, but always by starts, and after certain intervals; and some travellers have affirmed, that it rises to the height of sixty fathoms: it is certain, however, that it is thrown up much higher at some times than at others; but its elevation seldom falls short of ninety feet.

Immense masses of ice, which are frequently borne hither from Greenland, not only damage the country to a very great degree, but even affect its very climate. These masses, which are frequently left in shoal water, (and, as it were, immoveably fixed to the ground) remain in an undissolved state for many months, and sometimes even years, chilling all the surrounding atmosphere to the distance of many miles. When numbers of such huge and ponderous lumps of ice float together, the wood which is often drifted along between them is so much chafed, and pressed together with such violence, that it frequently catches fire; and from this circumstance many fabulous accounts of the ice being seen in flames have originated.

With these floating islands of ice numbers of bears arrive annually, and commit great ravages; particularly among the sheep. The Icelanders, however, watch the motions of these intruders, and sometimes oblige them to take to the ice again. The government allows a dollar for the destruction of every bear; and their skins are also purchased for the king, no private person being allowed to trade in that commodity.

Though corn and trees are seldom cultivated with success in Iceland, the soil produces cabbages, peas, turnips, and several other excellent plants.

The entire commerce of Iceland is monopolized by a Danish company. The exports consist of dried fish, salted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen-cloth, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. The imports consist of brandy, wine, salt, linen, timber, tobacco, bread, and hard-ware; besides some superfluities, which only the more opulent can purchase.

If this country affords no baits for avarice or ambition, it possesses the happiness of be-

ing exempt from the calamities of war: and the inhabitants solely depend on the protection of his Danish Majesty, who draws from them an annual revenue of about thirty thousand crowns.

C H A P. XII.

F A R O I S L E S.

THESE islands, which are about twenty-four in number, and lie between 61 and 63 degrees north latitude, and between 5 and seven degrees west longitude from London, receive their name from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one to another. They are situated on the westward of Norway, having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland on the north and north-west. They belong to Denmark: but the revenues arising from them are very inconsiderable; and their whole number of inhabitants is supposed to amount to no more than four or five thousand.

C H A P. XIII.

DANISH BALTIC ISLES.

THE most considerable islands in the Baltic belonging to Denmark are those of Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, and Bornholm.

Zealand, situated at the entrance of the Baltic, is the largest; being seventy miles in length, and about sixty-five in breadth.

Mr. Wraxhall describes this island as presenting, during the winter season, a most dreary and uninviting prospect, being then entirely covered with deep snow; but, during the short summer with which it is visited, it exhibits a most agreeable appearance, being every where level, and covered with corn and wood.

The soil of Zealand, which is pretty fertile, produces exceeding fine barley; as well as plentiful crops of oats, of which great quantities are exported. It contains many fertile meadows of beautiful verdure; and some woods of oak and beech, abounding with game: but, in the vicinity of Copenhagen, very little timber is to be seen; and the inhabitants are consequently subjected to many difficulties in procuring fuel.

In this island are several lakes; some of which are extensive, and well stocked with fish.

Funen, which is about fifty miles long, and forty-five broad, lies between the Great and Little Belt, and received its name from its beauty and fertility; Funen, or (as the Danes call it) Fyen, being synonymous to our English epithet Fine. The whole island is extremely well cultivated; and produces plentiful crops of grain, considerable quantities of which are exported.

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The principal towns in the Island of Funen are those of Niburg and Odenfee.

The other islands in the Baltic appendant on the Danish crown, contain nothing worthy of notice; being small and inconsiderable, both with respect to population and cultivation. The soil, however, is in general the same as in those just described; and the temperature of the climate admits of but little variation.

C H A P. XIV.

SWEDISH BALTIC ISLES.

THE principal isles in the Baltic Sea belonging to the crown of Sweden are those of Gothland, Aland, and Rugen.

The Island of Gothland is nearly one hundred and eight miles long, though only thirty-six at its extreme breadth. From its convenient situation, it acquired the name of the Eye of the Baltic; and was formerly governed by its own king, and had laws and privileges peculiar to itself. The inhabitants subsist by agriculture, grazing, fishing, navigation, and several mechanic trades. According to a late geographer, the peasants sell none of their commodities to the inhabitants of towns; but, when any one of them comes to market, he applies to a burgher, who furnishes him with every necessary, and gives him money to discharge all taxes; while the peasant, on his part, delivers up to the burgher all the produce of his industry, without making any stipulations: and thus both parties proceed according to the dictates of natural justice and equity.

Wisby, formerly one of the Hanse-towns, is the only place worthy of notice in this island. It had once an extensive and flourishing trade; and its maritime laws were anciently so famous, that they were universally adopted throughout the Baltic.

The other islands belonging to Sweden are too inconsiderable to be attended to.

C H A P. XV.

RUSSIAN BALTIC ISLES.

THE only islands in the Baltic belonging to Russia, which commonly fall under the notice of geographers, are those of Osel and Dagho.

Osel, which is situated at the entrance of the Gulph of Riga, is eighty-four miles long, and between sixteen and eighteen miles broad. It formerly belonged to the Grand-master of the Teutonic order of knighthood, but without prejudice to the crown of Denmark's pretensions to it. At last the knights surrendered it up to the Danes, who ceded it to the Swedes; and the latter, by the treaty of Nyftadt, gave it up to Russia.

Dagho seems to be very little known; as we are furnished with no accounts of this island which are worthy of being recorded.

C H A P. XVI.

PRUSSIAN BALTIC ISLES.

HIS Prussian Majesty possesses two small islands in the Baltic; namely, Usedom and Wollin.

The Island of Usedom, commanding the navigation of the Peone, the Ucker, and the Oder, is bounded on the north by the Baltic; on the east by the strait called the Swin, which separates it from the Island of Wollin; on the south, by the Frischen Haff; and, on the west, by the Acher Water. It is about five German miles in length, but disproportionably narrow.

The only places of any importance in this island are Usedom, a small town with an old castle; and Penemunder-Schanze, situated on the north extremity of the island, which it entirely commands.

The Island of Wollin lies near the former; and is about twenty English miles in circumference. It produces excellent pasturage, with plenty of game and fish; but, from the lowness of its situation, is frequently in danger of being overflowed. Wollin town is situated near the strait to which it gives name; over which is a bridge, which unites the island with Pomerania Anterior.

C H A P. XVII.

MEDITERRANEAN ISLES.

MAJORCA.

THE Island of Majorca, situated about eighty miles from the Spanish coast, is the largest of the Balearic Islands, being sixty miles long, and about forty-five broad. It is divided into two parts; that towards the north and west, though not barren, is very mountainous; while that part of it which lies to the south and east, is beautifully level, and laid out in corn-fields, orchards, and vineyards.

The air of Majorca is temperate and salubrious; and though the island is in general well supplied with water, and yields a proportionable quantity both of animal and vegetable productions, the excessive droughts to which it is subject frequently occasion a considerable scarcity.

In their manners and customs, the inhabitants of Majorca resemble the Spaniards, but particularly the Catalonians. Persons of distinction speak the Spanish language; but that of the common people is a medley of Spanish, Latin, and Limesin; which last is a mixture of French, Greek, and Arabic.

Majorca,

Majorca, the capital, stands on the west side of the island, on a bay between two capes, in 39 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 2 degrees 46 minutes east longitude; being an extensive and stately town, fortified in the modern stile, and delightfully situated. It is honoured with a royal audience, an university, and a court of inquisition; and contains about ten thousand inhabitants.

C H A P. XVIII.

MINORCA.

THE Island of Minorca, which is situated about fifty miles north-east of Majorca, is nearly thirty miles long, and twelve broad. The south shore is smooth; but, towards the north, it becomes very rugged: and the whole island, though interspersed with some fertile vallies, may be considered as mountainous.

The air is moist; and the heat is not very intense in summer, nor the cold very severe in winter. The soil is not remarkably fertile; and, from the extreme hardness of the water, nephritic disorders are very frequent.

Salt, which is one of the most profitable commodities of this island, is prepared by the influence of the sun in the cavities between the rocks. Some of the wine is esteemed excellent; and the inhabitants are said to dispose of as much annually as amounts to near thirty thousand pounds sterling. Fish are caught in great plenty in the surrounding seas; and, indeed, the land productions are pretty numerous and valuable: corn, however, the most essential article of domestic consumption, as well as many other conveniences and even luxuries of life, are obliged to be imported from other countries.

The natives, from the scarcity of farinaceous food, subsist principally on vegetables. They are extremely fond of dancing; and have a natural turn for the kindred arts of music and poetry, the very peasants frequently challenging each other to a competition in displaying their musical and poetical talents. They are also said to have been, from very remote antiquity, famous for their skill in the use of slings; the Balearic Slingers, natives of this island, being mentioned in history as having assisted in several illustrious engagements during the existence of the Roman and Carthaginian republics; the present inhabitants, who seem to retain a considerable share of the dexterity of their ancestors, still command their cattle with slings; but, being averse to industry, they neglect many advantages which might be derived from commerce and agriculture.

Port Mahon is defended by the castle of St. Philip; and works of great strength are cut out of the rocks, on account of it's being esteemed one of the most commodious harbours in Europe: it's entrance, however, is somewhat difficult; but, on the inside, it is landlocked, and perfectly secure from all tempests. Near it lies the little trading town of Mahon, from whence it takes it's name.

Citadella, which is esteemed the capital of the whole island, contains about six hundred houses; is the seat of the governor, and is excellently fortified.

The English took this island from the Spaniards in 1708; after which it was confirmed to them by the treaty of Utrecht. . But having been invaded by the French in 1756, after a very brave resistance under General Blakeney, the garrison was obliged to surrender, the French having invested Fort St. Philip with an army of fifteen thousand men well provided with every kind of military stores: however, it was restored to the English by the peace of Paris in 1763; from whom it has been again wrested, after a no less vigorous defence, by the Spaniards.

C H A P. XIX.

IVICA.

THE Island of Ivica, or Yvica, which appears to be the Ebusus of antiquity, lies fifty-six miles south-west of Majorca, and is about five miles long, and four broad. . The soil is not naturally sterile; but is very little cultivated, on account of the superior advantages which the natives derive from the prosecution of the salt trade. It produces pines, and fruit-trees of various kinds.

Ivica, the capital, is fortified in the modern manner; but retains few vestiges of that splendor for which it was celebrated in the time of the Romans and Carthaginians. It is, however, still the residence of a governor; from whose decisions appeals lie to the Royal Audience at Majorca, as being also an appendant of the crown of Spain.

C H A P. XX.

CORSICA.

THE Island of Corsica lies opposite to the Genoese continent, between the Gulph of Genoa and the Island of Sardinia; and is more celebrated for the noble stand which the inhabitants lately made, under General Paoli, for the preservation of their liberties against the Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French to enslave them, than for any natural or adventitious advantages. However, though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chefnuts, olives, and other fruits; it has also some cattle and horses; is plentifully supplied both with sea and fresh-water fish; and the inhabitants are said to amount to one hundred and twenty thousand.

Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; but the other towns of the island, though some of them have at times made a resolute defence for the preservation of their liberty, are but poorly fortified.

C H A P.

C H A P. XXI.

SARDINIA.

THE Island of Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the Duke of Savoy, lies about one hundred and fifty miles west of Leghorn. From the number of marshes and morasses which overspread the face of the country, the air is extremely insalubrious. It is computed that his Sardinian Majesty's revenues arising from this island, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery, do not exceed five thousand pounds sterling annually.

Cagliari, the capital, the seat of a viceroy, an archbishopric, and an university, stands on a large bay of the same name on the south part of the island, in 39 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, and in 9 degrees 53 minutes east longitude. It has a secure and commodious harbour, capable of receiving a great number of ships of burden; and is defended by a castle. The cathedral is a most magnificent fabric, encrusted with marble; and is adorned, both internally and externally, with the finest architecture, sculpture, and paintings.

Sardinia was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain: but at the peace of Utrecht, it was ceded to the Emperor; and, in 1719, to the House of Savoy.

C H A P. XXII.

SICILY.

THE Island of Sicily, which was once regarded as the granary of the world, still continues to supply Naples, and many other kingdoms, with corn; but its cultivation, and consequently its fertility, is by no means at present in a very flourishing state. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, being nearly the same with those of Italy, we shall decline particularizing them.

Sicily, according to the unanimous opinion both of ancient and modern authors, was originally joined to the continent of Italy; but, from the gradual encroachments of the sea, as well as the frequent shocks of earthquakes, it eventually became a perfect island. The strait between Sicily and Calabria is, at its utmost breadth, only three Italian miles. It is famous for the whirlpools of Scylla and Charybdis, once the terrors of ancient mariners; but now so little dreaded, that a small boat, in tolerable weather, will pass them without apprehension.

Sicily extends from 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, to 38 degrees 20 minutes; and from 12 degrees 20 minutes, to 16 degrees 25 minutes east longitude. It is somewhat of a triangular figure; and its whole circumference is about six hundred miles.

The climate is so excessively hot, that, even in the beginning of January, the shade is deemed refreshing. Chilling winds, however, are annually felt for some days in the month
of

of March. The only appearance of winter to be traced in this island is towards the summit of Mount *Ætna*; where snow sometimes falls, which the inhabitants have discovered a method of preserving.

The religious establishments of Sicily are extremely numerous; their buildings are handsome, and their revenues considerable: and, indeed, were the island better cultivated, and its government less arbitrary, a more agreeable situation, on many accounts, could hardly be desired. There are still extant many fine remains of antiquity; particularly in the vicinity of the once famous city of *Syracuse*.

Palermo, the modern capital of Sicily, is supposed to contain one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants, who carry on a pretty extensive commerce. The two principal streets, which intersect each other, are celebrated for their beauty; and it is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at the public expence.

Messina was lately an elegant and extensive city, containing about thirty thousand inhabitants: and esteemed one of the greatest mart towns in the Mediterranean. It was adorned with many churches, convents, and other noble public and private structures. But this beautiful city, together with the greatest part of its inhabitants, was destroyed by repeated shocks of an earthquake, in 1783; and, at the same time, irreparable damage was done in many other parts of the island. At this tremendous period, likewise, many towns and villages were demolished on the coast of *Calabria Ultra*.

Mount *Ætna*, one of the most celebrated and formidable volcanoes in the world, is of immense height; and, when first discovered by mariners, exhibits the appearance of a prodigious chimney, or a very large rugged pillar. The inhabitants call it *Monte Gibello*; that is, Mount of Mounts. The ascent to it from *Catania* is thirty thousand paces high: but, on the side near *Rondazzo*, only twenty thousand. It stands separate from all other mountains; its figure is circular, and terminating in a cone; and its circumference, at the base, is no less than one hundred thousand paces. The lower part is very fertile in corn and sugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost perpetually covered with snow: notwithstanding which, its crater continually emits smoke; and sometimes prodigious quantities of fire, stones, and lava; which, spreading desolation to an inconceivable distance, level the pride of human art in the dust, and often bury man and beast in one undistinguished grave.

CHAP. XXIII.

MALTA.

THE Island of Malta, the ancient *Melita*, which is situated in 15 degrees east longitude, and 45 north latitude, sixty miles south of *Cape Passaro* in Sicily, is of an oval figure, being twenty miles long, and twelve broad. Its air is serene, but excessively hot; and the whole island appears to be composed of a whitish rock, covered with a thin surface of earth; which,

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which nevertheless produces an amazing quantity of the choicest fruits and vegetables, as well as garden-stuffs of all kinds.

This island, or rather rock, was given to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in 1530, by the Emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes; and they are now known by the distinction of the Knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity; but they seem to consider the former only as binding, and dispense with the observance of the latter without ceremony. They have considerable possessions in the Roman Catholic countries on the continent; and are under the government of a grand-master, who is elected for life. Regarded as the bulwark of Christendom against the Infidels, they wear crosses of a particular form; and have never degenerated from the military glory of their predecessors. They are generally descended from noble families, and are ranked according to their nations.

The chief town is Valetta, or Malta; which, with the whole island, is so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable.

CHAP. XXIV.

ZANTE.

IN the Adriatic Sea several islands are disseminated, principally belonging to the Venetians; of which Zante, Cephalonia, and Corfu, are the most considerable.

Zante, the ancient Zacynthus, which is situated near the strait of the gulph which runs between the Morea and Livadia, in 37 degrees 57 minutes north latitude, is about twenty-four miles long, and twelve broad. It is a pleasant and fertile island, abounding in corn, wine, oil, and all sorts of fruit: it contains many towns and villages; and the Greeks, who constitute the majority of the inhabitants, have a bishop; and above forty churches, besides convents.

The city of Zante, which is large and populous, stands on the east side of the island, and is furnished with a commodious and safe harbour; but, being destitute of walls, it is only defended by a strong fortress erected on an eminence. This city is governed by a proveditor and two counsellors. Both the English and Dutch nations have their respective consuls and factories for the staple commodities of the place; namely, raisins and currants.

CHAP. XXV.

CEPHALONIA.

CEPHALONIA, the ancient Cephallenia and Samos, which is situated in 38 degrees north latitude, is a considerable island; and extremely fertile, producing currants, oil, wine, muscadine grapes, citrons, oranges, pomegranates, and grain. Most of the trees yield their fruit twice a year; viz. in April and November; but the fruit of the latter month is inferior in size to that of the former.

Cephalonia had formerly four considerable towns; but it has now only a few large villages; with a city of it's own name, standing about six miles from Argostoli, the principal sea-port of the island, which is capacious, and well sheltered on all sides; and at the entrance there is a large village, in which the merchants principally reside.

This island, though under the government of the Venetians, is chiefly inhabited by the Greeks, who pay them an annual tribute.

C H A P. XXVI.

C O R F U.

CORFU, the ancient Phœacia, and afterwards Corcyra, is about seventy miles long, and twelve broad. In former ages, it was celebrated for the gardens of King Alcinous. It's southern parts are barren, mountainous, and destitute of water; but it's northern coast is very fertile in all kinds of delicious fruits, wine, grain, and olives.

This island contains two cities; Corfu, the capital; and Cassiope, the Cassiope of antiquity; besides about an hundred villages.

The city of Corfu, which is strongly fortified, constantly maintains between fifteen and twenty galleys, besides other vessels, for it's defence. The fortifications are amazingly extensive; and the city is adorned with many beautiful structures.

The other Adriatic islands are—Sapienza; Stivali; Santamaura; and particularly Isola del Compare, the ancient Ithaca, which will ever be celebrated for having been the birth-place, as well as the kingdom, of Ulysses; though, at present, it is little better than a barren rock.

C H A P. XXVII.

C A N D I A.

I N the Archipelago and the Levant there are a considerable number of islands, belonging to the Ottoman Empire; the principal of which, regarded as European, are subjoined.

Candia, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for it's hundred cities; for it's having been the birth-place of Jupiter; the seat of legislature to all Greece; as well as for it's many other historical and political distinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude; being two hundred miles long, and sixty broad; and almost equidistant from Europe, Asia, and Africa. The once famous Mount Ida, which stands in the centre of the island, is now become a sterile rock; while Lethe, the river of oblivion, is only a torpid stream. Some of the vallies of this island, however, produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds.

Candia,

Candia, the capital, is more illustrious in history for the memorable siege it sustained than for any efforts of architecture or remains of antiquity it now contains. Compared with this siege, that of Troy sinks into nothing. The Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645; and it's Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself till the latter end of September 1669, at last made an honourable capitulation. This siege is said to have cost the Turks one hundred and eighty thousand men, and the Venetians eighty thousand.

Canea, the ancient Cydonia, the second city of rank in this island, stands on the northern coast; and is said to contain about twenty thousand inhabitants.

C H A P. XXVIII.

NEGROPONT.

THE Island of Negropont, to which the ancients gave the name of Eubœa, stretches from the south-east to the north-west on the eastern coast of Achaia. It is ninety miles long, and twenty-five broad. Though the tides on the coasts are extremely irregular, and the navigation of course dangerous, the Turkish gallies are moored in the vicinity. The island itself is very fertile; producing corn, wine, fruits, and cattle, in such abundance, that every kind of subsistence is both plentiful and cheap.

The principal towns are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Castle Rosso, the ancient Carystus.

C H A P. XXIX.

DELOS.

THOUGH Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, having been the reputed birth-place of Apollo and Diana; the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. At present, however, this island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

Round Delos lie the Cyclades, in a circle: but they are too insignificant to merit a description.

C H A P. XXX.

PAROS.

PAROS, the ancient Platea, which is a well-cultivated island, about thirty-six miles in circumference, is principally famous for it's fine white marble, and for the eminent sculptors it has produced.

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This island was once opulent and powerful; but, at present, it scarcely contains fifteen hundred families. The celebrated antiques, called the Chronicles of Paros, (marbles charged with Greek inscriptions of noble deeds performed in this island) were purchased in 1627 by Howard Earl of Arundel; who, in 1667, presented them to the University of Oxford; and from the noble donor they have received the name of the Arundelian Marbles. These inscriptions, which form the most authentic pieces of ancient chronology, and were carved two hundred and sixty-four years before the Christian æra, include a period of above three hundred years.

Like all the other Greek islands, Paros contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity.

C H A P. XXXI.

PATMOS.

THE Island of Patmos, to which the moderns indiscriminately give the names of Potino, Palmora, or Palmosa, is placed by some geographers in Europe, and by others in Asia. It is about eighteen miles in circumference; and contains one considerable town, in the middle of which stands the castle, called the Monastery of St. John, inhabited by two hundred Greek monks.

St. John the Evangelist is said to have written the Apocalypse during his exile in this island. In the church belonging to the monks, the body of this saint is pretended to be carefully preserved in a case; and, according to the legend, the cave is shewn in which he sat and wrote by divine inspiration.

The inhabitants of this island, amounting to about three thousand, are all of the Christian persuasion, though tributary to the Turks. The soil, which is exceedingly dry and rocky, with difficulty produces subsistence for it's scanty inhabitants.

C H A P. XXXII.

COLOURI.

THE Island of Colouri, the Salamis of the ancients, lies towards the bottom of the Gulph of Engia, being about fifty miles in circumference. On the west side it is furnished with a spacious harbour of an oval figure; near which stands a town, bearing the name of the island, extremely insignificant, though at present deemed the capital.

This island is famous in history for the important victory gained over Xerxes, Emperor of Persia, by the Grecian fleet commanded by Themistocles: but very few vestiges of the ancient city of Salamis are now discernible.

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NIXIA.

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C H A P. XXXIII.

NIXIA.

NIXIA, known to the ancients by the name of Naxos, which is a hundred and twenty miles in circumference, is the most fertile of all the islands in the Archipelago; and its wine still maintains its original character of excellence. The plains are covered with trees of citron, orange, olive, pomegranate, and fig. It is celebrated for producing a kind of green marble, speckled with white, called by the Greeks ophites.

This island contains between forty and fifty villages; and one principal town, situated on the south side of the island, and defended by a castle of considerable strength. On a rock near the sea, and within a small distance of the town, stands a large and beautiful marble portal, amidst a heap of marble and granite fragments, supposed to be the remains of an ancient temple dedicated to Bacchus.

C H A P. XXXIV.

CERIGO.

THE Island of Cerigo, or Cytherea, situated between Candia and the Morea, is about ten miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous. It was celebrated by the ancients for having been the favourite residence of Venus; but does not, at present, contain any thing worthy of being recorded.

C H A P. XXXV.

SANTORIN.

SANTORIN, one of the most southern islands in the Archipelago, was formerly called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though apparently covered with pumice-stones, it nevertheless produces barley, wine, and some wheat. Its inhabitants amount to about ten thousand; a third part of whom profess the tenets of the Latin Church, and are subject to a Roman Bishop.

Near this island another of the same name made its appearance in 1707, accompanied by an earthquake, most dreadful thunder and lightning, and an ebullition of the sea for several days successively: and, when it first emerged from the level of the waves, it was a mere volcano, though the burning soon ceased. It is about two hundred feet above the surface of

the sea; and was formerly only about five miles in circumference, though it has since that time considerably increased.

Several other islands in the Archipelago appear to have had a similar original with that which we have just described, though the sea in their vicinity is observed to be in general unfathomable. These stupendous works of Providence, which have long engaged the attention of philosophical enquirers, are perhaps inscrutable by human sagacity.

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A M E R I C A.

THIS vast continent, which was added to the terraqueous globe through the persevering spirit and unconquerable resolution of Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, in 1492, is frequently denominated the New World. It extends from the 30th degree of north latitude to the 56th degree of south latitude; and, in those parts where it's breadth has been ascertained, from the 35th to the 136th degree of west longitude from London: stretching between eight and nine thousand miles in length; it's greatest breadth being three thousand six hundred and ninety miles.

The inhabitants of America see both hemispheres; have two summers with a double winter; and enjoy all the varieties of climate which the earth affords. America is washed on the eastward by the vast Atlantic Ocean, which divides it from Europe and Africa; and, on the westward, by the Pacific or Great South Sea, which separates it from Asia; by which means it preserves a communication with the three other quarters of the globe. It is composed of two great continents: the one on the north; and the other on the south, united by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a sort of isthmus one thousand five hundred miles in length; being in one part, (at Darien) so extremely narrow, as to render an artificial junction of the two seas by no means difficult. In the great gulph which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, and most of them fertile, denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia which occupy the eastern part of the globe.

Though America in general is not a hilly country, it nevertheless contains some of the
largest

largest mountains in the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific Ocean; and exceed in length any chain of mountains on the globe, extending four thousand three hundred miles from the Isthmus of Darien to the Straits of Magellan: nor is their height less astonishing than their length; for, though partly lying within the torrid zone, their summits are perpetually covered with snow. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents, or level plains, there are no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole; and that long ridge which lies at the back of the Thirteen United States and British America, called the Apalachian, or Alligany Mountains.

America is unquestionably better watered than any other quarter of the globe; serving not only for the support of life and all the purposes of fertility, but also for the convenience of trade and the intercourse of one nation with another. In North America, those vast tracts of country situated beyond the Apalachian Mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas called the Lakes of Canada; which not only have a communication with each other, but give rise to several vast rivers, particularly the Mississippi, which runs from south to north till it falls into the Gulph of Mexico, after a winding course of four thousand five hundred miles, receiving in its progress the Illinois, the Misfaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers scarcely inferior to the Rhine and the Danube; and, on the north, the great River St. Laurence, which runs a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland. These rivers being navigable almost to their sources, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent; and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must be productive of the greatest advantages whenever the adjacent country shall become fully inhabited by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble Rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehana, and Potowmack, contains several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation; and hence many of the European settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that many of the planters are furnished with harbours at their very doors. South America is, in this respect, if possible, still more fortunate; as it contains the great River of Amazonas, and the Rio de la Plata or Plate River, two of the largest in the universe. The first, rising in Peru, not far from the South Sea, runs from west to east, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than three thousand miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of large and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises near the centre of the country; and, being gradually augmented by the accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such impetuosity into the sea, as to render it fresh-tasted at the distance of many leagues from land. Besides these, however, South America contains many other rivers; of which Oronoquo is the most considerable.

Extending to such a vast distance on each side of the equator, America must necessarily have a great variety of soils, as well as climates. It may, indeed, be regarded as the general storehouse of nature; since it produces most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other quarters of the world, and many of them in the greatest quantities and perfection. The gold and silver mines of America have rendered those valuable metals so common in Europe, that they bear little proportion to the high price set upon them before

before the discovery of the former. This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones: and to these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities which, though in less estimation, are of much higher utility; such as the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anotto, logwood, brazil, fustic, pimento, *lignum-vitæ*, rice, ginger, cocoa, sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and China, Jesuit's bark, mechoacan, saffraas, farfaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, and ambergris; together with a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to purchase them at an extravagant price from Asia and Africa, through the medium of the Venetians and Genoese, who at that time engrossed the trade of the oriental regions.

This continent also produces a variety of excellent fruits, which arrive at great perfection without the aids of cultivation; such as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicacans, cherries, pears, apples, figs, and grapes; together with great numbers of culinary and medicinal herbs, roots, and plants: and so extremely fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

America, as far as it has yet been colonized, is chiefly occupied by the Spaniards, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, on whose account it was originally discovered, have the largest and richest portion, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the Straits of Magellan in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts in Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent. Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America is Great Britain, which derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. in 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus. This country, for a long time, went under the general appellation of Newfoundland; a name which is now appropriated solely to an island on its coast. A considerable space of time elapsed before any attempts were made at colonization. Sir Walter Raleigh, a man of a most enterprising genius, and a brave commander, first paved the way, by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of Queen Elizabeth, his sovereign.

The French, indeed, from this period till the conclusion of the war in 1763, laid claim to, and actually possessed, Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country which reaches from Hudson's Bay on the north to Mexico and the gulph of the same name, on the south; regions which all Europe could not conveniently people in the course of many ages. But no territory, however extensive, no empire, however boundless, could gratify the ambition of that aspiring nation; which, though bound by the most solemn treaties, continued in a state of hostility, making gradual advances on the back of our settlements, and rendering its acquisitions more secure and permanent by a chain of forts supplied with all the implements of war.

Nor were the French less assiduous to gain the friendship of the Indians, whom they not only trained to the use of arms, but infused into their minds the most groundless prejudices

dices against the national character and strength of the English. Thus hemmed in, and confined to a slip of land along the sea-coast, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the English began to take the alarm, and to harbour well-grounded suspicions against their rivals and natural enemies. The British empire in America, as yet in it's infancy, was threatened with a total dissolution; the colonies, in the hour of distress, implored the protection of the mother-country; and the most powerful armaments were dispatched to their relief, under commanders who might rival the most celebrated heroes of antiquity. A long war succeeded, which terminated gloriously for Great Britain; for, after much bloodshed, the French were not only driven from Canada and it's dependencies, but obliged to relinquish all that part of Louisiana lying on the eastern side of the Mississippi.

Thus, at an enormous expence, and with the loss of many brave men, our colonies were preserved, secured, and extended so far, as to render it difficult to ascertain the precise bounds of the empire towards the north and western sides. But these flattering prospects have since been almost totally annihilated by the unhappy contest between the mother-country and her colonies, which has at last terminated in the establishment of the Thirteen United States of America. History, perhaps, does not furnish a more striking instance of the instability of all human affairs, than may be gathered from the fate of Britain. Having saved the colonies but a few years before from the grasp of tyranny, she was herself soon accused of tyranny; and the natural and avowed enemies both of Great Britain and her dependencies lent the former every assistance in their power to establish that liberty which they had for ages so notoriously endeavoured to destroy.

The numerous islands lying between the two continents of North and South America are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch, indeed, possess three or four small ones; which, in any other hands, would be of little or no consequence. And the Danes have two; but they scarcely own enough to entitle them to rank as proprietors of the West India Islands, the name by which they are generally distinguished.

The native Americans still retain unmolested possession of all the countries on the north and west of North America; the greatest part of Guiana; and all the most southern parts of the continent, as Patagonia and the Island Terra del Fuego, all which may be considered as unknown land.

Beginning at the north, and proceeding regularly to the south, the American provinces will be found included in the subsequent Table.

CONTINENT

CONTINENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

CONTINENT OF NORTH AMERICA.					
Colonies	Length	Breadth	Chief Towns	Distance and bearing from London	In the possession of
New Britain, or the Country of the Esquimaux	Unknown	Unknown	None	Unknown	Great Britain
Province of Quebec	800	200	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland	350	250	Halifax		Ditto
New England	550	200	Boston	2760 W.	United States
New York	300	150	New York		Ditto
New Jersey	160	60	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Pennsylvania	300	240	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	Williamsburgh		Ditto
North Carolina	700	380	Wilmington		Ditto
South Carolina			Charles Town		Ditto
Georgia			Savannah		Ditto
East Florida	500	440	St. Augustine		Spain
West Florida			Pensacola		Ditto
Louisiana	Bounds undeter.		New Orleans	4080 S. W.	Ditto
New Mexico and California	2000	1600	St. Fee St. Juan	4320 S. W.	Ditto Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	Mexico	4900 S. W.	Ditto

CONTINENT OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities	Distance and bearing from London	In the possession of
Terra Firma	1400	700	Panama	4650 S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	500	Lima	5520 S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia	1200	960	A vast country, but little known to Europeans		
Guiana	780	480	Surinam Cayenne	3840 S. W.	Dutch French
Brazil	2500	700	St. Sebastian	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Paraguay, or La Plata	1500	1000	Buenos Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain
Chili	1200	500	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	Ditto
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	700	300	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth colonization.		

PRINCIPAL

PRINCIPAL NORTH AMERICAN ISLANDS.

Islands		Length	Breadth	Chief Towns	In the possession of
In the In Gulph of Atlant. St. Lawr. West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.	Newfoundland	350	200	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	Louisburg	Ditto
	St. John's	60	30	Charlotte Town	Ditto
	The Bermuda Isles	20,000 Acres		St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama ditto	Very numerous		Nassau	Ditto
	Jamaica	140	60	Kingston	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	Bridge Town	Ditto
	St. Christopher's	20	7	Basseterre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montserrat	Each of these is 18 in circumference		Charles Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13		Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18	Kingston	Ditto
	Granada	30	15	St. George's	Ditto
	Tobago	32	9		France
	Cuba	700	70	Havannah	Spain
	Hispaniola	450	150	St. Domingo	Spain and France
	Porto Rico	100	49	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60		Ditto
Margarita	40	24		Ditto	
Martinico	60	30	St. Peter's	France	
Guadaloupe	45	38	Basseterre	Ditto	
St. Lucia	23	12		Ditto	
St. Bartholomew, Defeada, and Marigalanta	All of them in- considerable			Ditto Ditto Ditto	
St. Eustatia	29 in circumference		The Bay	Dutch	
Curassou	30	10		Ditto	
St. Thomas	15 in circumference			Denmark	
St. Croix	30	10	Basse-End	Ditto	

The

The native Americans are in general very personable: their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads are flattish, being the effect of art; their features are regular; their countenances are fierce; their hair is long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse; and the colour of their skins is a reddish brown, heightened by the constant use of bear's grease and paint.

Depending for support on hunting, and ignorant of every art of agriculture, the character of the Indians is wholly founded on their circumstances and modes of life. As they have no particular objects to attach them to one place in preference to another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. They have neither towns nor cities; and, except among the natives of the extensive empires of Mexico and Peru, every art and every elegance was unknown when America was first discovered. The different tribes or nations are but small when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders serviceable to each other. These small tribes live at a vast distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and hid in the bosoms of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

A certain species of government is established in each society, which prevails, with very little variation, over the whole continent of America. Destitute of arts, riches, or luxury, the grand instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no other method of rendering himself respectable among his countrymen than by a superiority of personal or mental qualities. But as Nature has not been very partial in her endowments, all are pretty much on a level: hence liberty is their prevailing passion; and, under the influence of this sentiment, their government is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are, however, far from despising all sorts of authority; they listen to the voice of wisdom, and enlist under the banners of that chief in whose valour and military address, they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, the power of the elders, or one particular chieftain, is predominant; and, in proportion as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be considered as monarchical or aristocratical. Among the most warlike tribes, the power of the chief is naturally greatest, because the continual exigencies of the state require his aid: his authority, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; and he is rather revered as a father, than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, nor any officers of justice; and one act of ill-judged violence would deprive him of all authority. The elders, in the more pacific government, are equally circumscribed in the exercise of their power: they are considered merely as public counsellors; and, should their opinions appear to be influenced by improper motives, from that moment they would cease to be regarded. In some tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence having been gradually augmented by time, has become considerable; but this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination by which we annex to descendants the merits of their ancestors, is too refined an idea to be very prevalent in America. Among the greatest number of the Indian nations, therefore, age alone is competent to acquire respect, influence, and authority: it is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people.

Though the want of riches, and a disregard to agriculture, might be apprehended to exempt these tribes from the calamities of war, nothing is more frequent than their animosities with each other: every person they meet, with whose nation they have not entered into some previous alliance, being deemed an enemy; and an indignity offered to an individual being regarded as a sufficient reason to rouse the community to revenge.

Nothing, indeed, characterizes the Americans more than the warmth of their friendship, and the inveteracy of their enmity. Having determined on a war, a number of preliminary ceremonies are performed; after which they sally forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which gives them a most hideous aspect. They then exchange their cloaths with their friends; and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a considerable distance, in order to receive these last tokens of eternal friendship. Accustomed to perpetual wanderings in the woods, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living according to nature, their external senses have acquired a degree of acuteness, which at first view appears incredible. They can trace their enemies at an immense distance by the smoky of their fires: and also by the tracks of their feet; imperceptible indeed to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They are even said to distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted in this manner, and to determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not even trace the vestige of a foot. No natural obstacles can impede their progress; they perform their expeditions with amazing vigilance and speed; and, if their foes happen to be absent from home, enter their villages, murder their women, children, and old men, and make prisoners of as many as they can manage. But when their enemies are apprized of their hostile intentions, and meet them in the field, they set up a tremendous yell, and commence the attack with the most savage and determined ferocity. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; they trample on and insult the dead bodies, tearing the scalps from their heads, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. Having secured their prisoners, the conquerors set up a most terrible howling, by way of lamentation for the friends they have lost. They approach, in a melancholy and sullen gloom, to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival; and the women, with frightful shrieks, come forth to mourn for their fathers, husbands, or brothers. The prisoners are soon after put to the severest tortures that vindictive barbarism can invent: but neither insults, fires, nor racks, can occasion the least distortion of countenance in the suffering victim, who even stimulates their rage, and exasperates them to madness. 'I am brave and intrepid!' cries the suffering savage, in the face of his tormentors; 'I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures: those who fear them are cowards; they are less than women! Life is nothing to those who have courage. May my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh, that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop!'

Nothing in the history of mankind forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war; and the warmth of their affection to their friends, which is not only manifested while they are living, but even after their decease. When any of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole tribe; and a thousand ceremonies

monies are practised, expressive of unfeigned sorrow. The most remarkable, however, as it discovers both the extent and the duration of their grief, is what they call the Feast of the Dead, or the Feast of Souls: on which occasion, all those who have died since the last solemn commemoration, (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight years among others) are taken out of their graves; and those who have been buried at the greatest distance from their native villages, are carefully sought for, and brought to this general rendezvous of carcases. No ideas are adequate to the horrors of this general disinterment: nor can words sufficiently express the affection displayed by the survivors to their deceased relatives; they bring them into their cottages, where they prepare feasts to their honour, during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses between them and their friends are piously commemorated. A vast pit is then dug in the ground; and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, which present mortality in a thousand humiliating views, are deposited in the pit, and covered up; after which the torrent of grief breaks out anew.

The above ceremony certainly indicates that these savages have some notion of the immortality of the soul; that they suppose these pious offices to be grateful to their deceased friends; and that they are sensible of their regards in that state to which they are removed. Religion, however, is not the prevailing character of the Indians: they indeed invoke Areskoui, or the God of War, to be propitious to them on particular emergencies; and some of them pay adoration to the sun and the moon; but, except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no kind of homage. Like all rude and ignorant nations, they are strongly addicted to superstition; and they believe in the existence of a number of good and bad spirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all their happiness or misery. These Genii have their priests and ministers, who are the only physicians among the savages, and whose prescriptions are generally simple and uniform.

But these characteristics of the Indians relate chiefly to the natives of North America. Those of South America are very different; they are feeble in constitution, and enervated by indolence; and have neither intrepidity in war nor industry in peace. Possessing a more fertile soil, and abstinent to a very high degree, they are commonly satisfied with the spontaneous productions of the earth, doze away their years in sluggish inactivity or indifference, or only exert the milder passions; and, in general, they are neither remarkable for ardour of affection to their friends, nor savage inveteracy against their enemies.

B O O K VII.

CONTINENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

BRITISH AMERICA.

C H A P. I.

NEW BRITAIN.

NEW Britain, or the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, or North and South Wales, occupies an amazing extent of territory; being bounded by unknown lands and frozen seas on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada on the south; and by a strait which separates America from Asia on the west.

The everlasting snow which covers the stupendous lofty mountains towards the north, together with the winds which blow from thence near three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in this country which is seldom felt, except from similar causes, in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

The rivers in New Britain, which are numerous, large, and deep, generally receive their names from those English navigators by whom they were first discovered. The principal bay is that of Hudson; and the chief straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belleisle.

From such a northern expositure, and the intenseness of the cold, it might naturally be concluded that this country is extremely sterile; and, indeed, to the northward of Hudson's Bay, the hardy pine-tree, the only evergreen of polar regions, is no longer seen; and the cold womb of the earth seems incapable of giving life to any other productions than a few blighted shrubs. Every kind of European seeds which has been committed to the earth, has hitherto perished: but if the grain produced in the northern parts of Sweden and Norway were tried in the soil bordering on Hudson's Bay, it is highly probable that it would endure the rigours of that climate; for it is a well-known maxim in agriculture, that seed produced in a milder climate will not thrive in one so highly severe. Yet, notwithstanding this sterility and intolerable cold, the latitude is no higher than 51 degrees north; which, in Europe, is found to be sufficiently mild for every necessary purpose of vegetation.

The animals about Hudson's Bay, the only place of which we have yet obtained any accurate knowledge, are the moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares; of the feathered tribe, there are immense flocks of geese, ducks, bustards, partridges, and almost every species of wild fowl; of sea fish, there are whales, moroses, seals, cod-fish, and various other kinds; and, in the rivers and lakes, there are pike, perch, carp, and trout.



So prodigiously plentiful is game, that, in the course of one season, ninety thousand partridges, as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares, have been caught in the vicinity of Fort Nelson; a striking instance of the bounty of Providence to the most unpropitious climes. All the animals of these regions are clothed with close, soft, warm furs, adapted to the severity of the cold. In summer there is observed, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; but no sooner is that season elapsed, which lasts only about three months, than they all assume the livery of winter; and every sort of beasts, as well as most fowls, change their natural colour to that of snow. This is a very singular phenomenon; but it is still more surprizing that dogs and cats, which have been imported from England, should, on the approach of winter, entirely change their appearance, and acquire much longer, softer, and thicker coats of hair, than they originally possessed.

Before we proceed farther in our description of American animals, it will be proper to remark, that all the quadrupeds of the New World are less than those of the Old; even such as are imported from Europe for the purpose of breeding there, are often found to degenerate, but never to improve. If, with respect to size, we compare the animals of the old and new continents, we shall not find the smallest degree of proportion: the Asiatic elephant, for example, often grows to above fifteen feet in height; while the tapurette, the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which is by some called the American camel, is still less; and the beasts of prey are entirely divested of that ferocity which renders them so formidable to the natives of Africa and Asia. There are no lions; nor, properly speaking, either leopards or tigers: travellers, however, have affixed these names to such ravenous animals as are thought to bear some resemblance to those of the ancient world. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti, of America, are but despicable creatures when compared with the tiger, the leopard, and the panther, of Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tiger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three feet. All the animals, therefore, in the southern parts of America, are different from those in the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, except those which, being capable of enduring the rigours of polar regions, have travelled from one continent to the other: thus the bear, the wolf, the reindeer, the beaver, and the stag, are as well known by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada as by the Russians; while the lion, the leopard, and the tiger, which are natives of the warmer climes, are entirely unknown in South America.

But if the quadrupeds of America be more diminutive than those of the ancient world, they are much more numerous: for it is an invariable rule throughout the whole extent of animated nature, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. Though goats imported from Europe to South America, in the course of a few generations, dwindle to an inferior size, they become more prolific; and, instead of producing one or two kids at a time, generally bring forth five or six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence, in rendering formidable animals unprolific, is sufficiently obvious: were the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, endued with the same degree of fecundity as the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest; and, instead of trembling at the

human form, and shrinking from the efforts of reason, their brutal force would soon give them a higher degree of confidence, and they would speedily tyrannize over those who plume themselves on being the lords of the creation.

Human nature, in these bleak regions, appears to be but half animated: the inhabitants, in their shapes and features, considerably differ from their more southern neighbours, their faces being flat and deformed, and their make clumsy and ungraceful; and, in general, they strongly resemble the Laplanders and Samois of Europe, already described. But though their personal attractions are but few, they are not destitute of ingenuity: they kindle a fire with great address; cloath themselves with abundant attention to convenience; and have a peculiar method of preserving their eyes from the ill effects of the glaring white which every where surrounds them. Their manners, however, are as disgusting as their appearance; they are savage and untractable, ignorant of every refinement of social life, and as inhospitable as the country they inhabit.

The first knowledge of these northern seas and countries originated from a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since that time it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and, from the result of Captain Cook's late discoveries, it seems pretty manifest that no practicable passage can ever be found. Frobisher discovered only the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, Captain Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coasts; but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure; the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and the third and last in 1610. This bold and skilful navigator entered the straits which lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated as far as 80 degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not having been abated by the difficulties he had encountered in this empire of winter, he staid there till the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to prosecute his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same magnanimity to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of his most faithful adherents, and committed them, in an open boat, to the fury of the icy seas. This illustrious seaman and his companions, who were never after heard of, were supposed either to have been swallowed up by the waves, or, having gained the inhospitable coasts, to have been destroyed by the savages; but the abandoned crew were fortunate enough to return to Europe. Captain Ellis, in 1746, made another attempt towards a discovery, and wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half.

But though these adventurers failed in their original purpose of finding a passage into the Pacific Ocean, their project, even in it's failure, has proved very beneficial to their country. The vast regions surrounding Hudson's Bay, as has been previously observed, abound with animals, whose furs and skins are of the most essential service in several manufactures. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, consisting of a few individuals, for the exclusive trade to this bay; and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to the members, though comparatively with very little emolument to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade, were it not engrossed by this exclusive company, might be carried on to a much greater

greater extent; but companies, though perhaps necessary to the origin of a new species of commerce, have ever been found detrimental to the interests of their country.

The Hudson's Bay Company employ only four ships, and one hundred and thirty seamen: They have four forts; namely, Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the western shore of the bay, and are garrisoned by an hundred and eighty-six men. They export commodities to the value of about sixteen thousand pounds annually, and bring home returns to the amount of near thirty thousand, which yield to the revenue a sum short of four thousand pounds. Small as this commerce is, it nevertheless affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their furs and skins being all manufactured in Britain, and in general of such materials as could not be disposed of in any country less savage and ignorant. The rudest workmanship meets with admirers among these uncivilized Indians, and the most faulty goods find a ready market. On the other hand, the skins and furs imported from Hudson's Bay enter largely into our manufactures, and afford materials for opening a beneficial commerce with several European nations.

C H A P. II.

C A N A D A.

CANADA, or the province of Quebec, is bounded by New Britain and Hudson's Bay on the north and east; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the south; and by undiscovered tracts of land on the west: lying between 45 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and 61 and 81 of west longitude; and being about eight hundred miles long, and two hundred broad.

Situated in a pretty high northern latitude for the continent of America, the winters in this province are long and severe; but the summers, though short, are warm, and extremely pleasant; and, indeed, the general serenity of the air renders every season tolerable, or at least perfectly salubrious.

The soil, notwithstanding the icy cold which binds it for so large a proportion of the year, is in general very good; and in many places both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grain, as well as fruits and vegetables: tobacco, in particular, is much cultivated, and seems perfectly congenial to the soil. The Isle of Orleans, near Quebec, as well as the lands lying contiguous to the River St. Lawrence and other large streams, are remarkable for the richness of their soil; and the meadow-grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield the most luxuriant pasturage for vast numbers of great and small cattle.

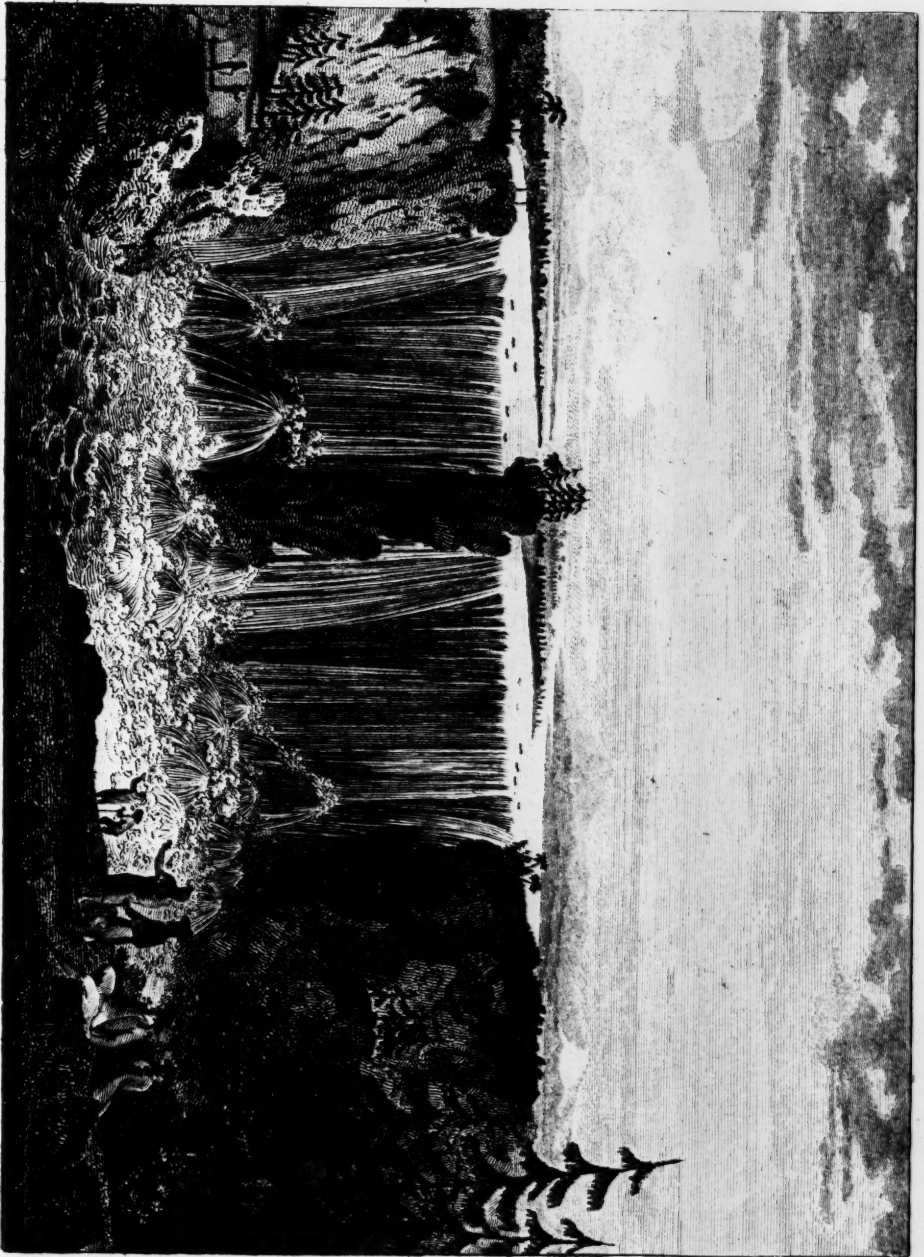
This province is watered with numerous rivers, many of which are large, bold, and deep. The most considerable are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Despaires, and Trois Rivières; but these are all absorbed by that vast collection of waters the River St. Lawrence. This noble river issues from the Lake Ontario; and, taking a north-east course,
washes

washes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. Continuing to flow in the same direction, it meets the tide upwards of four hundred miles from the sea, where it is navigable by large vessels; and below Quebec, which is three hundred and twenty miles from the ocean, it is so broad and deep, that the royal navy of Great Britain assisted in the reduction of that capital. After receiving innumerable streams in its course, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosieres, where it is thirty leagues broad, extremely boisterous, and the cold intense; and, in its extensive progress, it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of which are extremely fertile and delightful.

But if the rivers in this country are considerable, the lakes are still more so; and, though the only settlements of any importance at present are on the River St. Lawrence, if we carry our prospects into futurity, it is not improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled to carry on an extensive trade on the great lakes of fresh water surrounded by these countries. These lakes are five in number: the smallest of which, that of Ontario, is no less than two hundred leagues in circumference; a most charming piece of water, and more extensive than any lake in the other parts of the world: Erie, or Oswego, extends farther in length; but being more of an oblong figure, its circumference is not much greater than that of Ontario: the lake of Huron spreads greatly in width, and its circumference is not less than three hundred leagues: Michigan is nearly of the same extent; though, like Lake Erie, it is rather long, and comparatively narrow: but Lake Superior is by far the most spacious, contains several large islands, and is at least five hundred leagues in circuit. All these lakes are navigable by the largest vessels, and preserve a communication with each other; except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall, or cataract, called the Falls of Niagara. Where the rock crosses it, the water is about half a mile broad, and from the bend of the cliff describes a crescent. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is one hundred and fifty feet, words cannot sufficiently express the sensations occasioned by seeing such a vast body of water violently thrown from so amazing an elevation on the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height; and, from its being converted into foam by these violent agitations, appears as white as snow. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of fifteen miles, and sometimes much farther; and the vapour arising from it, which resembles a cloud, or pillar of smoke, varied like the rainbow, may also be seen at a very considerable distance, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller happen to favour the sight. Beasts and fowls frequently lose their lives in attempting to swim across, and are found dashed to pieces below; and sometimes Indians, either through carelessness or inebriety, meet the same tremendous fate, which draws a vast number of birds of prey to the place, in hopes of feasting on their carcases.

The River St. Lawrence is the only outlet of these lakes by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. When Canada was in the possession of the French, they built forts at the several straits by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the Lake Superior gives source to the above river; by which means they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, as well as an influence over all the contiguous Indian nations.

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THE FALLS OF NIAGARA.

Engraved on the Art direct, by H. H. H. & Co. Am. 1853.

The only metal which has as yet been thoroughly discovered in Canada, is contained in a fine lead-mine near Quebec; though we are informed that silver has been found in some of the mountains. Coals, however, abound in different parts of the province; a blessing peculiarly grateful in a country where the cold is so very intense.

Canada, stretching a considerable way on the back of the other colonies, contains almost all the different species of animals and wood to be met with in North America; which, to avoid repetition, we shall notice in this place.

It is well known that North America contains the most extensive forests in the world: these form a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, but, to appearance, coeval with the world itself. Nothing can exhibit a more magnificent landscape: the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that, even among those persons who have taken the greatest pains to enumerate them, there is not, perhaps, one of them who has half completed the catalogue. The province now under consideration produces, among others, two species of pines, the white and red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three sorts of ash-trees, the free, the mongrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians excavate the red elms into canoes; some of which, formed of one entire piece, are sufficiently capacious to contain twenty persons: others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the interior rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather with a bituminous matter resembling it, in order to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are composed of the boughs of trees. About the month of November, the bears and wild cats take up their residence in the hollow elms, where they remain till April.

In this province there are also cherry-trees; plum-trees; vinegar-trees, the fruit of which, when infused in water, produces that valuable liquid; an aquatic plant called alaco, the fruit of which may be formed into a confection; the white-thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning before the dew falls off, produce a kind of honey, affording, when boiled, a saccharine substance, while the seeds of the same tree contain a very fine cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn, French beans, gourds, melons, capillaire, and hops.

To the spoils of the Canadian animals, which are both curious and valuable, we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, as well as the greatest part of the commerce yet carried on between us and that country. The forests of Canada afford shelter and nourishment to a variety of creatures, which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of the whole continent; particularly stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martens, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish colour, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts are well stocked with wild bulls, deer of a small size, various species of roebucks, goats, and wolves. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which are extremely numerous in this country, swarm with otters; and beavers, of which the white are highly valued for their great scarcity, as well as those entirely black. The American beaver, though it resembles the

creature known in Europe by that name, has many peculiarities, which render it's history the most curious of any animal we are acquainted with : it is near four feet long, and generally weighs about sixty or seventy pounds ; it lives from fifteen to twenty years ; and the female generally brings forth four young ones at a time.

The beavers are amphibious quadrupeds; and, though incapable of continuing long under water, find it necessary to bathe frequently. The savages, who wage a continual war with these animals, believe that they are rational creatures; that they live in society; and that they are governed by a leader, resembling their own sachem, or prince. It must, indeed, be confessed, that the curious relations given of these animals by ingenious travellers, the manner in which they contrive their habitations, and provide food for their support during the winter, but always in proportion to it's continuance and severity, seem to indicate some approaches of instinct to rationality; and, in some instances, the superiority of the former.

The furs of the beavers are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry furs are composed of their skins before they have been applied to any use; and the green furs are those which have been worn by the Indians, after being sewed together and besmeared with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down which is manufactured into hats that oily quality which fits it for being worked up with the dry fur: and both the English and Dutch have lately discovered the method of making excellent cloths, gloves, stockings, as well as hats, from the fur of the beaver. Nor is the value of these sagacious animals confined solely to the fur produced by them; they likewise yield the true castoreum, which is contained in small bags in the lower parts of their bellies, separate from their testicles. The flesh of beavers is likewise esteemed delicious food; though, when boiled, it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk-rat seems to be a diminutive kind of beaver, and resembles that animal in almost every respect, except it's tail: it weighs about five or six pounds, and affords a very strong musk.

Many extraordinary medicinal qualities are ascribed to the hoof of the left-foot of the elk, an animal of the size of a mule. It's flesh is both agreeable and nutritive, and it's colour is a mixture of light grey and dark red: it shews a predilection for the colder climates; and, when the depth of the snow covers every herb, it subsists on the bark of trees. When this animal is closely pursued, it sometimes springs very furiously on the hunter, and tramples him to death: to prevent which, he throws his cloaths to the prey; and, while the deluded animal exhausts all it's fury on them, proper measures are taken to dispatch it.

A very curious carnivorous animal, called the carcajou, is found in Canada: it seems to be of the feline, or cat kind; and has a tail so extremely long, that Charlevoix informs us he twisted it several times round it's body. From the tip of the snout to the insertion of the tail, it measures about two feet; and we are told that this creature, after winding itself round a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist it's strong tail round it's body, and cut it's throat in an instant.

The buffalo, or wild ox, very much resembles that of Europe; and it's body is covered with a kind of black wool, which is highly valued. The flesh of the female is excellent food; and the hides of both sexes are much esteemed on account of their being as soft and pliable

pliable as shamoy leather; and, at the same time, so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make from them are with difficulty penetrated by a musket-ball.

The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, and differs in that respect only from the European animal of the same name. Wolves, though not very numerous in this province, afford excellent furs; their flesh, which is white, is reckoned salubrious, and they possess the faculty of pursuing their prey to the very tops of the highest trees. Black foxes are very scarce, and are on that account highly valued, but those of other colours are more common; and, towards the Upper Mississippi, there are some of a fine silver colour, and extremely beautiful: they live upon aquatic fowls, which, by means of a variety of antic tricks, they decoy within their reach.

The pole-cat of this country is wholly covered with a beautiful white fur, except on the tip of its tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has afforded this animal no defence but that of its urine, the smell of which is intolerably nauseous, and which it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws on its assailant. The Canadian wood-rat, which is of a beautiful silvery colour, has a bushy tail, and is twice as big as the European animal of that name: the female has a bag under her belly, which she opens and shuts at pleasure, to conceal her young in the hour of danger.

Canada produces three species of squirrels; and that called the flying-squirrel is said to leap from one tree to another at the distance of more than forty paces. This little animal is easily domesticated, and is remarkable for its vivacity: it readily lodges in whatever place it can find; in the coat-sleeve, a pocket, or a muff; but generally adheres to its master, whom it is capable of distinguishing among a confused number of people. The Canadian porcupine is somewhat less than a middle-sized dog; and, when roasted, is as delicious as a sucking-pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those of Europe, except that they assume a greyish colour in winter. In the forests there are two different species of bears, the reddish and the black; the former of which is the most dangerous. The bear, however, is not naturally ferocious, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger; and, under such circumstances, it pursues every animal it meets. About the month of July the bear is extremely lean, and its rapacious appetites are much increased. Scarcely any thing is undertaken with greater solemnity among the Indians, than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a celebrated bear-hunter, who has been fortunate enough to dispatch several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than with one who has signalized himself in war, because the chase is the only means by which the natives are supplied with food and raiment.

The ornithology of this country affords an extensive field to the naturalist. There are numbers of eagles; falcons; goshawks; tercel; and partridges of various colours, with long tails, which they spread out like fans, in a very beautiful and pleasing manner. Woodcocks are not very numerous; but snipes, and other water-game, are found in abundance. A Canadian raven is said by some authors to be as grateful to the taste as a pullet; and an owl is even esteemed preferable. Blackbirds, swallows, and larks, are plentiful; and there are no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large aquatic fowls. The Canadian woodpecker

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is a most beautiful bird. There are also thrushes and goldfinches : but the most celebrated songster of the groves, is the white-bird, a species of ortolan, very vivid in it's colours, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird is esteemed one of the most beautiful and extraordinary of any in nature; but, with all it's plumage, it is no bigger than a cock-chaffer; and it makes a noise with it's wings resembling the humming of a large fly.

The rattle-snake is one of the most formidable serpents which this country produces, and therefore deserves particular attention. Some of them are as big as a man's leg, and long in proportion. The structure of the tail of this reptile is a singular phenomenon, being scaly like a coat of mail, and an additional ring, or row of scales, growing on it every year; so that it's age may be discovered by it's tail as easily as that of a horse by it's teeth. In moving, it makes a loud rattling noise, from which it has obtained it's name. It's bite is said to be mortal, if a speedy remedy be not applied; but, in all places where these dangerous reptiles breed, there grows a plant, called rattlesnake herb, the root of which is an unfailing antidote against the venom of the serpents, and that with the most simple preparation; for it only requires being pounded or chewed, and applied to the wound like a plaster. The rattle-snake seldom molests travellers when unprovoked; and never darts at any person without first rattling it's tail. When pursued, it folds itself in a round circle with it's head in the centre, and springs with great fury and violence on it's pursuers: notwithstanding which, the savages are not afraid to attack it; they esteem it's flesh as peculiarly excellent; and, as it possesses some medicinal qualities, the American physicians prescribe it in a variety of cases.

The fisheries of Canada are by some esteemed more advantageous than the furs themselves, though so numerous and valuable. The River St. Lawrence contains perhaps the greatest variety of fish of any in the world, and these in the utmost plenty, and of the most delicious kinds. Besides an infinite variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, there are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, lencornets, goberques, sea-plaife, salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, chaourafous, sturgeons, achigaus, giltheads, tunnies, shads, lampreys, smelts, conger-ells, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards.

The sea-wolf, so called from it's howling, is an amphibious animal; and the largest sort is said to weigh two thousand pounds. The flesh of these animals is esteemed proper for food; but the greatest advantage arises from their oil, which is used both for burning, and for currying leather. Their skins make excellent coverings for trunks; and, though inferior in beauty to Morocco leather, preserve their freshness longer, and are less liable to crack. Shoes and boots made of their skins are impervious to the rain; and, when properly tanned, may be converted to a variety of purposes.

The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but bears some resemblance to it in it's conformation: it has two teeth of the thickness of a man's arm, which, when full-grown, appear like horns; and these, as well as the other teeth, are excellent ivory. Some of the porpoises of the River St. Lawrence are large enough to yield a hog'shead of oil; and their skins are made into waistcoats, which are not only exceedingly durable, but which are said to be even musquet-proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle-fish, generally quite circular,

circular, though sometimes of an oval figure. There are three species of this animal, which differ principally in size; some being as large as a hoghead, and others only a foot long: the last only are caught, and are esteemed very agreeable food. The goberque has the taste and flavour of a young cod; and the sea-plaice, which is taken by means of long poles armed with iron hooks, is reckoned very delicious.

The chaourasou is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh: it resembles the pike, but is covered with scales which are dagger-proof; its colour is a silver grey; and under its mouth grows a bony substance dentated at the edges. From the very external appearance of such a well-fortified animal, we might naturally conceive it to be a tyrant of the deep. We have few instances of fish preying on the feathered race; but this creature does it with abundance of art: it conceals itself among the reeds and canes, in such a manner, that nothing is perceptible except its weapon, which it holds up in a perpendicular direction above the surface of the water; and the fowl, imagining it to be only a withered reed, perches on it without apprehension; but is no sooner alighted, than the fish opens its throat, and makes such a sudden effort to seize its prey, that it very seldom escapes. This fish, however, is principally confined to the Canadian lakes.

The sturgeon, being both a fresh and salt-water fish, is found on the coasts, and in the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick; and there is also a smaller species of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilt-head, are fish peculiar to the River St. Lawrence; and in some of the Canadian rivers there is found a species of alligators, differing very little from those of the Nile, except in their being less ferocious and formidable.

While Canada remained in the possession of the French, the banks of the River St. Lawrence were very populous; and since the province has fallen into the hands of the English, that population has unquestionably increased. It is, however, impossible to form any precise idea of the number of inhabitants, both of French and British extraction, which people this province. The revolt of the more southern colonies has certainly proved favourable in one respect to such of them as have continued in allegiance to their natural sovereign; and accordingly the adherents to the British crown having found it necessary, not only through principle, but also from motives of personal security, to seek the protection of that government in whose cause they risked both their lives and property, have emigrated into Nova Scotia and Canada in considerable numbers, and thereby increased the strength of those remaining appendages of Great Britain.

The different tribes of native Indians in Canada are almost innumerable; but these people are observed to decrease in proportion to their intercourse with Europeans, probably from their immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond: but as liberty is their ruling passion, we may naturally suppose that, as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more distant regions.

Before the Canadian colonists fell under the British government, they lived in great affluence, being exempted from all taxes, and indulged with full liberty to hunt, fish, sell timber, and to plant and sow as much land as they thought proper; and, by the articles of ca-

pitulation granted to the French when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were continued in the full possession of their original privileges and immunities.

* However, in the year 1774, an act was passed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec; by which it was enacted, that it should be lawful for his majesty, his heirs and successors, by warrant under his or their signet or sign-manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to constitute and appoint a council for the province of Quebec, to consist of such persons resident there, not exceeding twenty-three in number, nor less than seventeen, as his majesty, his heirs, and successors, shall be pleased to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or absence, of any members of the said council, in like manner to constitute and appoint others to succeed them: and this council so nominated or appointed, or the majority of them, are vested with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government, of the province, with the consent of the governor, or, in his absence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. This council, however, is not authorized to impose any taxes, except for the purpose of making roads, the reparation of public buildings, or such local conveniencies. By this act, likewise, all matters of controversy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are also allowed by this act to profess the Roman Catholic religion; and the Popish clergy are invested with a right to claim their accustomed dues from those of the same religion. An act which introduced such material innovations into the British constitution, could not fail to alarm the friends of their country; it excited violent apprehensions, both in England and America, and unquestionably tended to enflame that spirit of disaffection which soon after broke out in the colonies. How it may operate for the advantage of Canada, time alone can develop.

The Canadians import from Europe spirituous liquors; wine; cloths of various sorts, but principally coarse; and wrought iron. The Indian trade likewise occasions a demand for rum, tobacco, blankets, guns, powder, ball, flints, kettles, hatchets, and toys and trinkets of every kind. While this country was in the possession of the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders who, after the manner of the aborigines, traversed the vast lakes and rivers, in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, among nations entirely unknown to Britons. These again brought their skins and furs to the French marts, or fairs, at Montreal, sometimes from the distance of one thousand miles. These fairs, which began in June, frequently lasted for three months; and, during their continuance, guards were employed, who, with the governor in person, assisted in preserving order amongst such a concourse of people, and so great a variety of savage nations. But, notwithstanding these precautions, great disorders and tumults frequently happened; and the Indians, who are extravagantly fond of brandy, sometimes bartered their whole stock for a very small quantity of that pernicious spirit: and, what is very remarkable, many of those nations actually passed by our settlement of Albany, in New York, and travelled two hundred miles farther to Montreal, though

though they might have purchased goods cheaper at the former: so greatly did the French exceed us in the art of conciliating the affections of these savage nations.

Since Canada fell under the British government, our trade with that country has been computed to employ about sixty ships, and one thousand seamen, annually. The exports in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount, at an average of three years, to a sum little short of one hundred and six thousand pounds; and the imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are calculated at nearly the same sum. It is unnecessary to make any comments on the value and importance of this trade, it being obvious that it not only supplies us with such unmanufactured materials as are indispensably necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange either the manufactures of our own country, or the produce of our West India islands.

But notwithstanding all the attention that can possibly be paid to the commerce and colonization of Canada, there will ever arise insuperable inconveniencies from the winter season, which is so excessively severe from December to April, that the largest rivers are then frozen over; and the snow is generally from four to six feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country which lie 3 degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the River St. Lawrence below Montreal, which render it both difficult and dangerous for very large ships to penetrate to that emporium of internal commerce: however, vessels of three or four hundred tons burden annually arrive there, unimpeded by those barriers to ships of larger burden.

The only towns of importance in Canada are Quebec, Trois Rivières, and Montreal; all situated on the River St. Lawrence.

Quebec, the capital, not only of the province to which it gives name, but of all Canada, is situated at the confluence of the Rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, on the Little River, about three hundred and twenty miles from the ocean. It is built on a rock, partly composed of a species of marble, and partly of slate. The town is divided into an Upper and a Lower; and the houses in both are built of stone, in a commodious, if not elegant manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular; and the town is covered by a strong and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides.

The most noble edifices with which this city is adorned, exclusive of the Citadel, are, the Jesuits College, the Episcopal Palace, the houses of the Knights Hospitalers and Recollects, and a hospital called Hotel Dieu. The number of inhabitants in the Upper and Lower Towns, which are united by a steep flight of steps, are computed at twelve or fifteen thousand.

The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathoms in depth; and the harbour is flanked by two bastions, raised twenty-five feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the times of the equinox.

In 1711, the English fitted out a fleet, with a design to conquer Canada; but the expedition failed through the rashness of the admiral, who, contrary to the advice of his pilot, sailed too near the Seven Isles, and thus lost his largest ships, together with three thousand of his best sailors. Dispirited by this loss, the English seem to have dropped all intentions of carrying their arms thither till the year 1759, when the immortal Wolfe, with a reso-

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lution not to be intimidated by any possible obstacles, and a bravery which has seldom been equalled, and never exceeded, in any age or nation of the world, routed the French with prodigious slaughter; but, to the irreparable loss of his country, he fell in the very moment of victory. In consequence of this defeat, articles of capitulation were soon proposed by the French garrison of Quebec, which in general were acceded to on the part of the British; and thus all Canada was gained by one decisive blow, and confirmed to this country by the pacification of 1763.

In 1775, Quebec was attacked by an American army commanded by the generals Montgomery and Arnold; but they were repulsed with great loss, and Montgomery fell in the action.

From Quebec to Montreal, (about one hundred and seventy miles) in sailing up the River St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with the most charming landscapes; the banks of that river being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close to each other all the way; several gentlemen's seats present themselves at intervals; and there is every appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. Many beautiful islands are scattered up and down the channel of the river, which have a very pleasing effect; and, after passing the Richelieu Islands, the air, during the summer months, becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller is ready to imagine himself transported to another climate.

Trois Rivières, or the Town of the Three Rivers, is nearly equidistant from Quebec and Montreal; and receives its name from three rivers which unite their streams at this place, and fall into the River St. Lawrence. It is much resorted to by several Indian nations; who, by means of these rivers, carry on a trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The surrounding country is pleasant, and fertile in corn and fruits; and numbers of elegant houses stand on both sides of the river.

Montreal stands on an island in the River St. Lawrence which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the southern shore. While the French retained possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors; who had so greatly improved them, that the whole island was become one of the most delightful spots in the world, and productive of every thing which could administer to the convenience of life.

The city forms an oblong square, intersected by regular and well-formed streets; and, when it fell into the hands of the English, the buildings were completed in a very elegant stile, and every house was perceptible at one view either from the harbour or the southern side of the river, the hill on which the town stands gradually sloping to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications in general have been much improved since they were occupied by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec, and contains about an equal number of inhabitants; but it has been much damaged by accidental fires within these last twenty years.

C H A P. III.

NOVA SCOTIA.

NOVA Scotia, or Acadia, the most eastern part of the continent of America, is bounded by the Gulph of St. Lawrence on the north; by that gulph and the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by the Atlantic Ocean on the south; and by Canada and New England on the west: lying between 43 and 49 degrees north latitude, and between 60 and 67 east longitude; and extending about three hundred and fifty miles in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth.

The principal rivers of Nova Scotia are, the River St. Lawrence, which forms the northern boundary; the Rivers Rispouche and Nipisiguit, which run from west to east, and falls into the bay of St. Lawrence; and those of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from north to south, and fall into the sea near Fundy Bay.

The coast has the advantage of many bays, harbours, and creeks. The harbour of Chebucto, both as to safety and convenience, may justly be esteemed one of the finest in the world; and is therefore the place of rendezvous for the royal navy of Great Britain while stationed in America, being furnished with a royal dock, and conveniences for sheathing and careening the largest ships. The entrance into it is from the south; and on the north-east side lies a large irregular island, named Cornwallis, from the first governor of Halifax. This island, as well as a smaller one lying higher up the harbour, called George Island, is very commodiously situated for a fishery, and possesses every convenience for drying and curing the fish.

The lakes in Nova Scotia are numerous, but they have not yet received any appropriate names.

Though this country lies within the temperate zone, it has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions, from the thick gloom, or fog, which overspreads it for some months in the year. The quick transitions likewise from extreme cold to an equal degree of heat, have certainly very noxious effects on the vital œconomy; but we may reasonably conclude that, when Nova Scotia shall become better cultivated, the fogs will be less frequent, and the winters more mild. At present, indeed, this province is almost a continued forest, in which agriculture has made but little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, producing only a shrivelled kind of corn, and grass intermixed with a spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracks in the peninsula to the southward not inferior to the best land in New England; and, in general, hemp and flax are found to thrive very well. The timber is well adapted for every purpose of naval architecture, and produces pitch and tar.

Nova Scotia affords the same animal productions as the neighbouring provinces; particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild-fowl, and all manner of game, besides many kinds

of European birds and quadrupeds, are plentiful and cheap. But the most valuable productions of New Scotland are its fish, which begin to spawn about the end of March, when they enter the rivers in incredible shoals; herrings in April; and sturgeons and salmon in May: however, the cod-fishery on Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks and excellent harbours, is the most valuable; not only in this country, but in the whole world.

Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this province, in it some of the first European settlements were formed; and it is now supposed to contain near thirty thousand inhabitants. The first grant of lands was made by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, from whom it received the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. The pretensions of the English to this country were founded on the circumstance of Sebastian Cabot's being the original discoverer of it in the reign of Henry VII. Since the time, however, that the country was claimed by this nation, it has frequently changed its owners, having been consigned from one private proprietor to another, as well as from the French to the English. At last it was confirmed to the English by the peace of Utrecht: but their design in acquiring it does not seem to have originated so much from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might thereby be furnished with an opportunity of annoying our other settlements.

On this principle (as it appears) three thousand families were transported, in the year 1749, into Nova Scotia, at the charge of government. They erected a town, to which they gave the name of Halifax, in honour of the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and attention Great Britain is indebted for this settlement. Halifax, which stands on Chebucto Bay, is very commodiously situated for the fishery; and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land-carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers. The harbour, as has been previously observed, is one of the most commodious in the universe. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with timber forts.

The other most considerable towns in Nova Scotia are Annapolis, standing on the eastern side of Fundy Bay; which, though but small, was formerly deemed the capital of the province: its harbour is large and commodious, and capable of affording safe anchorage to a thousand sail at once. St. John's stands at the mouth of the river of the same name, which falls into the Bay of Fundy on the west. But the most recent establishment, and which bids fair to become the most opulent, is that of Shelburne Town, founded by the American loyalists.

The inhabitants of Nova Scotia export all sorts of lumber, such as planks, staves, hoops, and joists; together with immense quantities of fish; the latter, indeed, is their staple commodity, and employs a great number of hands.

The king of Great Britain, who is sovereign of the soil, appoints the governor, lieutenant-governor, and council, that form the Upper House of Assembly; and the freeholders elect the Lower House, which is composed of representatives of the people.

AMERICAN

AMERICAN STATES.

CHAP. IV.

NEW ENGLAND.

BEFORE we proceed to a description of the different provinces which now compose the Thirteen American States, it will be proper to give a concise detail of the origin and progress of that unhappy dispute between Great Britain and her colonies, which terminated in the acknowledged independency of the latter.

In the year 1765, the British parliament having passed an act for imposing stamp-duties on all papers and parchments made use of in law-proceedings, and money transactions between man and man throughout the colonies; that measure first gave rise to disaffection and animosity in the province of New England. This act having been repealed the subsequent year, the ferment seemed at that time to subside; but, immediately on an attempt to levy fresh internal taxes, particularly a duty of threepence a pound on all teas, it revived with aggravated force.

The provincial assembly of this province had for some years been at variance with Mr. Barnard, the governor; who having been recalled, was succeeded by General Gage; and a body of forces, amounting to about two thousand men, arrived soon after. But neither the new governor, who was well known and respected in the province, nor the appearance of the troops, could overawe that spirit of opposition which was already gone forth: a general confederacy of all the old colonies, from New England to South Carolina, soon took place; and associations were every where entered into for the purpose of breaking off all commercial intercourse between them and the mother-country.

A general congress, composed of deputies from the different colonies, met at Philadelphia, which the authority of the British governors was not able to controul. By this congress the right of Great Britain to levy internal taxes on the continent was denied, and the security of their liberties was deemed as shaken by the claim of such a power. Petitions, remonstrances, and addresses, were transmitted to England, couched in the most respectful, though determined language, expressive of their allegiance, and their earnest desire to be permitted to levy money for the uses of government by means of their respective provincial assemblies, and not to be subjected to the taxation of the British parliament where they had neither representatives nor interest: but these representations, which were founded only on the common principles of justice, having been disregarded by our government, the Bostonians proceeded to fresh outrages; and threw the tea, which had been sent out charged with the aforementioned impost, into the sea; in consequence of which an act was passed to block up the port of Boston.

Much time having afterwards been spent in unsuccessful negotiations, open hostilities at last commenced in 1775. The Americans, though in general untrained to arms, made
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head against a powerful army sent out from Great Britain, and strengthened with foreign mercenaries, under General Howe; while between eighty and ninety frigates of different sizes were stationed along the coast, and some ships of the line rendezvoused at New York. The various advantages and repulses, the change of commanders, and the attempts at negotiation, which followed, are fresh in the memory of every person whose age or capacity then permitted him to attend to such events.

On the fourth of July 1776, the Congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the King of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared, that they then were, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They also published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the United Colonies, in which they assumed the title of the United States of America; and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all, or any of them; and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled against all, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies, however, reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But, for the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, it was resolved, that delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday of November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. It was likewise stipulated, that no state was to be represented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and that no person was capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years; nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emoluments, of any kind whatsoever. In determining questions in the United States in congress assembled, each state was to have one vote, and no more. Every state was to abide by the determinations of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions which should be submitted to them by the confederation. The antecedent articles of confederation were to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration at any time thereafter to be made in any of them, unless such alteration was acceded to in a congress of the United States, and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of every particular state.

On the 30th of January 1778, the French king first acknowledged the independency of the United States of America, by concluding with them a treaty of amity and commerce, under

under that designation: November 30, 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic Majesty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states; which articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Thus, in a few years, was the British empire torn to pieces; and the power which used to give law to all Europe, sunk under its constitutional weight.

New England, the head of the confederacy, and, as has been previously observed, the origin of the faction, is bounded on the north-east by Nova Scotia; on the west by Canada; on the south by New York; and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean: lying between 41 and 49 degrees of north latitude, and between 67 and 74 degrees of west longitude; and extending about five hundred and fifty miles in length, and two hundred in breadth; and is divided into four provinces, namely, New Hampshire, Massachusetts's Colony, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

This country is extremely well watered by the Rivers Connecticut, Thames, Patuxent, Merimac, Piscataway, Saco, Casco, Kinebeque, and Penobscot. The most celebrated bays and harbours are those of Plymouth, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations; Monument Bay, West Harbour, Boston Harbour, Piscataway, and Casco Bay.

The chief capes are those of Cape Cod, Marble Head, Cape Anne, Cape Netic, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point.

Though situated ten degrees nearer the sun than Great Britain, the winter begins much earlier, continues longer, and is more severe, than in England. The summer, on the contrary, is more intensely hot, and far exceeds any thing experienced in the same European latitude. However, the serenity of the sky amply compensates for the extremes of heat and cold; and renders this country so salubrious, that it is said to agree better with British constitutions than any other of the American provinces. During the winter season, the winds are boisterous and piercing; and naturalists ascribe the early approach, the continuance, and the severity of winter, to the large fresh-water lakes lying to the north-west of New England, which are frozen over for several months; and, above all, to the general uncultivated state of North America.

The longest day at Boston is about fifteen hours, and the shortest nine. The sun rises, at the summer solstice, twenty-six minutes after four in the morning, and sets at thirty-four minutes past seven in the evening; and, at the winter solstice, it rises thirty-five minutes after seven, and sets twenty-seven minutes after four.

The eastern shore of America is generally low, and in some parts swampy; but, farther back, the country gradually assumes a hilly aspect. In New England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous; and the soil throughout is various, but most fertile towards the south. Near Massachusetts's Bay, the mould is black, and extremely rich; and there the original planters discovered grafs above a yard high. The uplands, however, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel inclining to clay, are deficient in fertility; while the low grounds abound in meadows and pasturage.

European grain has not been cultivated in New England with much success; the wheat is liable to be blighted; the barley never comes to full perfection; and the oats are thin, and

loaded with chaff. However, Indian corn flourishes in the most luxuriant manner, and constitutes the general support of the lower class of people; who likewise malt and brew it into a beer which is far from being disagreeable: but their common beverage is cyder and spruce-beer; the latter being made of the tops of the spruce-fir, with the addition of a small quantity of molasses. New England likewise produces a large quantity of hemp and flax; and the fruits common to Great Britain in general arrive at considerable perfection, and yield more abundant crops than they usually do in their native climate.

But the most valuable productions of New England consist in the variety and value of its timber; such as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and other woods used in dyeing or tanning leather, carpenter's work, and naval architecture. The oaks are reputed inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing height and bulk, and formerly furnished the royal navy of Great Britain with yards and masts. Considerable quantities of pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, gums, and balm, are extracted from the trees; and as the soil likewise produces hemp and flax, a ship may be built and rigged with the produce of the country.

Several valuable iron mines, of the most excellent quality and temper, have lately been discovered in New England; which, if properly worked, cannot fail of becoming highly beneficial to the inhabitants.

The animals of this country furnish many articles of foreign commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive and multiply prodigiously; and the horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, though inferior in size to those of Britain. The sheep are not very numerous; and their wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is neither very fine, nor adapted for the manufacture of elegant cloths.

New England abounds with elks; deer; hares; rabbits; squirrels; beavers; otters; monkeys; minks; martens; racoons; fables; bears; wolves, which are only a species of wild dogs; foxes; ounces; and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the most singular animals of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moose-deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light grey moose, resembling the ordinary deer, which herd sometimes thirty together; and the larger black moose, the body of which animal is about the size of a bull, his neck resembles that of a stag, and his flesh is extremely grateful to the taste: the horns, when full-grown, rise about four or five feet from their bases to their tips, and have ramifications on each, which spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, it reclines its horns on its neck, in order to prevent their being entangled; and these horns are shed annually. In walking, the creature does not spring or rise like the common deer; and a full-grown one has been known, without any extraordinary exertions, to step over a gate five feet high. When roused from its cover, the moose will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before it takes to a bay; but, when pursued, it usually has recourse to the water.

Fowls are prodigiously numerous in New England; particularly turkies, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, and blackbirds; all sorts of poultry; vast flights of pigeons, which observe a periodical return; cormorants, ravens, crows, and various other kinds.

Reptiles,

Reptiles, such as rattlesnakes, frogs, and toads, swarm in the uncultivated parts of the country; and, together with the various species of owls, make a hideous concert in a summer's evening.

The seas round New England, as well as the rivers, swarm with fish: and even whales, of several kinds; such as the whalebone-whale; the spermaceti-whale, which yields ambergris; the fin-backed whale; the scrag-whale; and the bunch-whale, of which prodigious numbers are caught. A formidable creature, called the whale-killer, from twenty to thirty feet long, armed with strong teeth and jaws, harrasses the whales common in those seas; but, aware of his enormous strength, it seldom attacks a full-grown whale, or indeed a young one, except when in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the River Penobscot there is an excellent mackerel fishery; and, during the winter season, large quantities of cod-fish are caught, which are dried in the frost.

With respect to the abundance of inhabitants, the number of considerable trading towns, and the manufactures which are carried on in them, New England is infinitely superior to any of the United States. Indeed, the most populous and flourishing parts of Great Britain scarcely make a better appearance than the cultivated ones of this province; which, however, reach but about sixty miles backwards. Many gentlemen of this province possess considerable landed estates; but the greatest part of its inhabitants is composed of substantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, and live in a stile of easy, and perhaps enviable, independence. These freeholds generally devolve on their children in the way of gavel-kind, which prevents their being able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the middling ranks of people more independent, or possessed of a greater abundance of the conveniences of life: they are from their very infancy habituated to the exercise of arms; and, before the late contest with the parent country, they had a provincial militia, which was by no means contemptible; but their military strength is now much more considerable.

Connecticut is certainly the most populous as well as best cultivated part of New England. Throughout the whole province, the men are generally robust, hale, and tall. The greatest care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept perfectly straight by means of boards; a practice borrowed from the Indian women, who entertain the greatest aversion to all crooked people. The ladies of Connecticut are fair, handsome, and elegant; modest and reserved in their manners and conversation; and studiously kept from an acquaintance with those amusements which tend to destroy the simplicity of virtue. They are not permitted to read plays; nor can they discuss the doctrine of chances, or decide a contest about whist, quadrille, or the opera; but they are conversant with history, geography, and other literary subjects. Hospitality seems to be the leading feature in the dispositions of the inhabitants; and their principal defect seems to be that of too strong a tincture of religious bigotry.

Calvinism was formerly so prevalent in New England, and so destitute were the natives of charity for persons of different sentiments, that many suffered persecution on account of their nonconformity. Indeed, many of the Calvinists observed the Sabbath, as well as some other articles of religious faith, with a kind of Jewish rigour; but their bigotry has of late years considerably decreased. There is at present no established religion in New England;
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but every sect of Christians is allowed the free exercise of their private persuasions, and is equally under the protection of the laws.

As New England affords a vast number of articles of it's own product, it's trade must be proportionably great; but it is still farther increased by the people of this colony being in a manner the carriers for all the United States, the West Indies, and even for some parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields are principally bar and pig-iron, which are imported into Great Britain duty free; also masts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contract largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl-ashes, staves, lumber, and boards; and all sorts of provisions, which they sent to the French and Dutch sugar-islands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other British isles, as grain, biscuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheese, apples, cyder, onions, and mackarel and cod-fish dried. They likewise sent thither cattle, horses, planks, hoops, shingles, pipe-staves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, skins, and tobacco. The valuable fisheries of cod and mackarel on the coasts employ a considerable number of people; and with the produce of these they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and the West Indies, to a considerable amount.

The inhabitants of New England have cultivated, with unwearied assiduity, the arts most necessary to subsistence. They manufacture coarse linen and woollen cloth for their own use; and considerable quantities of coarse hats, which are disposed of in the neighbouring colonies. Sugar-baking, distilling, paper-making, and salt works, are carrying on with increasing energy. The business of ship-building is likewise very important; they are sometimes built on commission; but frequently the merchants of New England have them constructed on their own account; and, loading them principally with the produce of the colony, naval stores, fish and fish-oil, send them upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where having disposed of their cargoes, they make what advantage they can by freight, till they have an opportunity of selling the vessels themselves to advantage.

Before the American war broke out, it was computed that the amount of English manufactures and India goods sent into this colony from Great Britain, was not less, at an average of three years, than three hundred and ninety-five thousand pounds; while our imports from thence were calculated at three hundred and seventy thousand five hundred pounds.

The history of New England, and the mode of it's government, are the most interesting of any in this part of the continent. As we have previously observed, it is divided into four provinces, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. King James I. as early as 1606, had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-east coast of Asia was at that time called. However, no settlements were attempted in New England by virtue of this authority; the companies contenting themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coasts. This continued to be the only correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America till the year 1621. About this time, the religious dissensions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious; Archbishop Laud persecuting all manner of nonconformists with unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand,

hand, were ready to submit to all the rigours of persecution, rather than relinquish their opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the Church of England, which they considered as the most irreligious and fatal absurdities. There was not any part of the world into which they were not inclined to fly, in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field to people thus prepossessed; there they were permitted to transport themselves, and to establish whatever modes of religious policy they were inclined to adopt. With this view, having purchased the territory which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth Company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever manner they pleased, one hundred and fifty persons accordingly embarked for New England, and built a city, to which they gave the name of Plymouth, the port from which they had sailed. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the insalubrity of the air, the diseases to which they were naturally exposed in a strange climate, the want of all sorts of conveniences, and even many of the necessities of life; such of them as were endued with constitutions fit to endure those hardships, not dispirited by the deaths of their companions, but supported by the vigour peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm; set about cultivating the country, and took the most prudent steps for the advancement of their infant colony. Encouraged by their example, and actuated by the same motives, new adventurers passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty; and, before the year 1631, had actually built four towns; namely, Salem, Dorchester, Charles Town, and Boston; which last has since become the capital of New England.

As necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity occasions those dissensions which prove the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best concerted establishments. This reflection is peculiarly applicable to the original inhabitants of New England: those who had themselves fled from persecution, in a short time became strongly tainted with the illiberal spirit of intolerance, and zealous of introducing an uniformity of religion among all who entered their territories. In that age, the minds of men had not risen superior to many prejudices; they had not then acquired that liberal and generous way of thinking which at present characterizes the natives of Britain; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigotted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, and fled from its tyranny, they had forgot that charity which was due to those who dissented from them in opinion. It was not the general idea of that period, that men might live agreeably together in the same society without professing the same religious tenets; and wherever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, became rooted in a new soil, and disspread themselves over the country: such was that of New Hampshire, which still continues a separate jurisdiction; and such, too, was that of Rhode Island, the inhabitants of which were driven out from the Massachusetts Colony, (for by that name the first government erected in New England was distinguished) on account of their supporting their freedom with respect to religious sentiments, and main-

taining that the civil power had no authority over the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal-minded men founded a city called Providence, which they governed by their own maxims; and such is the close connection between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, soon became extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the same intolerant spirit, settled on the River Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England of such as were dissatisfied either with the civil or religious government of the parent state.

At this time, indeed, America was become the resource of the discontented and enterprising of every class; and such numbers embarked for it from England, that in 1637 it was judged expedient, in order to prevent the effects of an universal depopulation, to publish a proclamation, prohibiting all classes of people from emigrating thither without an express licence from government; and it is even said that, for want of this licence, Oliver Cromwell, Hampden, and some other incendiaries of civil dissension, were prevented from transporting themselves to New England after having been on ship-board for that very purpose.

The four provinces of New England, though always confederated for their mutual defence, were at first, and still remain, under separate jurisdictions. By their original charters they were all equally free, and in a great measure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, and the assembly; and the power of making such laws and regulations as they deemed expedient, without requiring the sanction of the legislature of Britain: their laws, however, were not to be repugnant to those of the parent country. But, towards the conclusion of the reign of Charles II. the Massachusetts's Colony having been accused of violating their charter, by a judgment in the King's Bench of England, they were deprived of their privileges. From that time till the Revolution, they remained without any charter; but, soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the laws was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative voice in the choice of counsellors, which was peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to assign any reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number; authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, elections of magistrates, nor any acts of government whatever, were valid without the governor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above three hundred pounds were referred to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, to which they had not been accustomed, the people still possessed a considerable share of power in this colony; for they not only chose the assembly, but the assembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, which resembled the English House of Lords; and the governor depended on the assembly for his annual support.

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But, in consequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain, the government of New England has been entirely changed. The steps which led to this revolution have been previously mentioned. By an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American Congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the State-house of that town on the 25th of July 1776.

The inhabitants of the province of Massachusetts agreed to a constitution or form of government, including a Declaration of Rights, which took place in October 1780. In the preamble to this deed of establishment, it was declared, that the end of the institution, maintenance, and administration of government, is to secure the existence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furnish the individuals composing it with the power of enjoying in security and tranquillity their natural rights and the blessings of life; and that, whenever these great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take measures necessary for their prosperity and felicity. They expressed their gratitude to the Great Legislator of the Universe, for having afforded them, in the course of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud, violence, or surprise, of entering into an original, explicit, and solemn compact, with each other; and of forming a new constitution of civil government for themselves and their posterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in society, publicly, and at stated seasons, to worship the Supreme Being; and that no subject should be hurt, molested, or restrained, in his person, liberty, or estate, on account of his worshipping God in the manner and season most agreeable to the dictates of his own conscience, or for his religious profession or sentiments, provided he did not disturb the public peace, or obstruct others in their religious adoration. It was also enacted, that the several towns, parishes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious societies, should at all times enjoy the exclusive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their support and maintenance; that all sums of money paid by the subject to the support of public worship and of the public teachers, should, if required, be uniformly applied to the support of the public teacher or teachers of the subject's religious sect or denomination, provided there were any on whose instructions he attended, otherwise it might be paid towards the support of the teacher or teachers of the parish or precinct in which the said sums should be raised; and that every denomination of Christians, demeaning themselves peaceably, and as good subjects of the commonwealth, should be equally under the protection of the law; and that no subordination of any sect or denomination to another should ever be sanctioned by law. It was likewise declared, that as all power resided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the several magistrates and officers of government vested with authority, whether legislative, executive, or judicial, are their substitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them; that no subject should be arrested, imprisoned, despoiled, or deprived of his property, immunities and privileges, put out of the protection of the law, exiled, or deprived of his life, liberty, or estate, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land; that the legislature should not enact any law that might subject any person to a capital or infamous punishment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury; that the liberty of the press is essential to the security of
freedom

freedom in a state, and that it ought not therefore to be restrained in that commonwealth; that the people have a right to keep, and to bear arms, for the common defence; but that, as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the consent of the legislature; and that the military power should always be held in an exact subordination to the civil authority, and be governed by it. It was likewise enacted, that the department of legislation should be formed by two branches, a senate and a house of representatives, each of which should have a negative on the other; that the senators and the members of the house of representatives should be elected annually; that every male person, being twenty-one years of age or upwards, who had resided in any particular town of the commonwealth for the space of one year, and having a freehold estate within the said town of the annual income of three pounds, or any estate of the value of sixty pounds, should have a right to vote for senators and representatives of the district of which he was an inhabitant; and that there should be a supreme executive magistrate, who should be stiled the Governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and also a lieutenant-governor, both of whom should be chosen annually.

Since the commencement of the war between Great Britain and the colonies, and even while it was carrying on with the greatest animosity on both sides, an act was passed by the Council and House of Representatives of Massachusetts for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences, entitled, 'The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;' the first members of which were nominated in the act, and were never to exceed two hundred, nor be less than forty. It was therein declared, that the end and design of the institution of the said academy was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country, and to determine the uses to which it's various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal discoveries; mathematical disquisitions; philosophical enquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological, and geographical observations; improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce; and, in short, to cultivate every art and science which might tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

The chief towns in New England are, Boston, Cambridge, Portsmouth, Newport, and Providence.

Boston, the capital, stands on a peninsula at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, about nine miles from it's mouth, in 42 degrees 21 minutes north latitude, and in 71 degrees west longitude. At the entrance of the bay there are several rocks, which appear above water; and a variety of small islands, some of which are inhabited. There is but one safe channel by which the harbour can be approached, and this is so very narrow, that two ships can scarcely sail through it abreast; but within the harbour there is room enough for five hundred sail to lie at anchor in a good depth of water.

On one of the islands of the bay stands Fort William, always esteemed the most regular fortress in the British Plantations. This castle is defended by one hundred guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water; so that it would be extremely difficult for an enemy

enemy to pass it: but, to prevent surprize, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues distance, from whence they make signals to the garrison as soon as any ship appears in view. There is also a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay there is a grand pier, two thousand feet long, on the north side of which there is a row of warehouses for the merchants; and to this pier ships of the greatest burden may approach, for the purpose of unloading, without the assistance of boats. The greatest part of the town lies round the harbour, in form of a crescent; the country beyond it rising gradually, and affording a delightful prospect from the sea. The head of the pier joins the principal street of the town, which is spacious and well-built, and consists of between four and five thousand houses. Several of the public structures possess a considerable share of elegance; among the most beautiful of which are the governor's house; and Fenniel Hall, so called from its founder. In the year 1768 the trade of Boston was so considerable, that one thousand two hundred sail entered or cleared at its custom-house.

Cambridge is situated only four miles from Boston, on the north branch of Charles River, and was originally called New Town; but, on founding the university, which consists of two spacious colleges, distinguished by the names of Harvard College, and Stoughton Hall, it changed its name. This university consists of a president, five fellows, a treasurer, three professors, four tutors, and a librarian who has the charge of a well-furnished library. The college charter was first granted in 1650; but never conferred any degree above that of Master of Arts till a new one was obtained from King William and Queen Mary, from which it derived the privilege of creating Doctors in Divinity, a power which it has seldom used.

Portsmouth, the most considerable town in the province of New Hampshire, which contains about one thousand seven hundred dwelling-houses, is pleasantly situated on Piscataqua-bay; and has a safe and convenient harbour, where the largest ships may ride in security. From this port about two hundred vessels sail annually for the West Indies, chiefly laden with timber, pipe-staves, fish, and other internal commodities; which being disposed of, they load there, and proceed from thence to Europe, where both vessels and cargoes are sold.

Newport and Providence are the principal towns in Rhode Island: the former is pleasantly situated on Rhode Island, and has a safe and commodious harbour for ships of moderate burden, its entrance being defended by a fort, on which are planted three hundred guns; and the latter, which stands in a charming situation, on a river of the same name, is a thriving town with a considerable trade.

The other towns in New England are generally neat, well built, and commodiously situated on fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

C H A P. V.

NEW YORK.

THE province of New York is situated between 40 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and between 72 and 76 west longitude; and is bounded on the south and south-west by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; on the east and north-east by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north-west by Canada.

This province, including Long Island, Staten Island, and other insular appendages, is divided into ten counties; namely, New York, Albany, Ulster, Dutchess, Orange, West Chester, King's, Queen's, Suffolk, and Richmond.

The principal rivers are, Hudson's, and the Mohawk: the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with a great variety of fish; and on it stand the cities of New York and Albany. On the Mohawk there is a large cataraet, called the Cohoes, the water of which falls about seventy feet perpendicular, at a place where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

The most considerable capes are, Cape May, on the east entrance of Delaware River; Sandy Hook, near the entrance of Raritan River; and Montock Point, at the eastern extremity of Long Island.

This province, lying to the south of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate; and the air is extremely salubrious, and agrees very well with European constitutions. The face of the country, like that of the other British American colonies, is low, flat, and marshy, towards the sea; but, on receding from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which increases in height in proportion as the traveller advances into the country.

The soil is abundantly fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits in great plenty and perfection. The timber is nearly the same with that of New England; and several valuable iron mines have lately been discovered.

The trade of the inhabitants of this province, which does not materially differ from that of New England, consists principally in wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other sorts of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have some share in the logwood trade, and in that which is carried on with the French and Spanish plantations. They formerly imported the same kinds of commodities from England as the inhabitants of Boston; and, at an average of three years, the amount of their exports to Britain was 526,000*l.* and their imports 531,000*l.*

About the year 1755, a college was erected in New York by virtue of an act of parliament: but as the provincial assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan; and, probably on that account, has never met with the encouragement which might naturally have been expected in so populous a city.

The

The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by these two nations extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the reign of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664, after which it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda in 1667. The New Netherlands had not been long in the possession of the British before they were divided into different provinces; and New York received its name from the king's brother, James Duke of York, to whom that prince granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent dated March 20, 1664. On King James's accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, and it was regarded as a royal government. the king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in seven years, possessed the privilege of electing their representatives to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of legislature, corresponding with those of Great Britain, had power to enact any laws not repugnant to those of England; though, in order to their becoming valid, the royal assent was first necessary to be obtained.

By the constitution of the state of New York, as new-modelled in 1777, the supreme legislative power was vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men; the one called the Assembly of the State of New York, and the other the Senate of the State of New York; who together were to form the legislature, and to meet once at least in every year for the dispatch of public business. The supreme executive power was to be vested in a governor, who can only continue in office for three years. Every male inhabitant, having attained the age of twenty-one and upwards, who should possess a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, should have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the day of election, was entitled to vote for the members of the assembly; but those who voted for the governor and the members of the senate, were to be possessed of freeholds of the value of a hundred pounds. The delegates to the Congress were to be chosen by the assembly and senate.

By the same constitution, it was ordained, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, should for ever be allowed, within that state, to all mankind, of whatever persuasion.

New York, the capital of the province, is extremely well situated for commerce, having a safe and commodious harbour, accessible three different ways for ships of common burden: there are also easy conveyances to it by water, from the rivers and lakes, for near six hundred miles; and it is also the centre of the principal trade of Connecticut and the Jerseys.

This city is situated in 40 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 47 degrees 4 minutes west longitude, at the southern extremity of York county, in an island at the mouth of Hudson's River, about fourteen miles long, and three broad. It enjoys an elevated situation, and contains between two and three thousand houses, in general pretty well built of brick and stone; but the streets are very irregular, though the town is defended by a wall and a fort, which are so constructed as to answer the double purposes of ornament and defence. It is adorned with several spacious public buildings; among which the College, the Court-house, and the Governor's house within the fort, are the most considerable.

The

The army under Sir William Howe took possession of this city in 1776, when it was set on fire by some incendiaries, and one-third of the buildings unhappily consumed. It was the last place in the United States of America which remained in the possession of the British army.

Albany, which is the next most considerable place in this province, is situated on the west side of Hudson's River, a hundred and forty miles to the north of New York city, and is defended by a fort. It contains near four hundred houses; and here the chiefs of the Five Indian Nations, as they are called, used to meet the governors of the northern colonies.

Saratoga, a small fort, situated about fifty miles to the northward of Albany, on the east side of Hudson's River, will ever be famous in history for having been the site where a combined army of British and Hessians, amounting to three thousand five hundred men, under the command of General Burgoyne, surrendered prisoners of war to the American General Gates in October 1777.

The number of inhabitants in the province of New York is calculated at a hundred and fifty thousand.

C H A P. VI.

NEW JERSEY.

THE entire province, which contains the two Jerseys, is about one hundred and sixty miles in length, and sixty in breadth: it lies between 39 and 43 degrees of north latitude, and 74 and 76 west longitude; and is bounded on the west and south-west by Delaware River and Bay; on the south-east and east, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the sound which separates Staten Island from the continent and Hudson's River, on the north.

The eastern division of New Jersey contains the counties of Middlesex, Monmouth, Essex, Somerset, and Bergen; and the western, the counties of Burlington, Gloucester, Salem, Cumberland, Cape Mary, Hunterdon, Morris, and Sussex.

The principal rivers in this province are Delaware, Raritan, and Passaic; on the latter of which there is a remarkable cataract, the height of the rock from which the water falls being seventy feet perpendicular; and the river at that place is eighty yards broad.

There is very little difference between the climate of this province and that of New York. The soil is various; and a considerable part of it is sterile and sandy, producing only pines and cedars; but the other parts are in general good, yielding wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, and other sorts of grain, in great abundance and perfection.

New Jersey forms a part of that vast tract of land which, as has been previously observed, was given by King Charles II. to his brother the Duke of York: who sold it for a valuable consideration to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret; from which it received its present name, because Sir George then had (and the family still have) considerable estates in the island of Jersey. These again consigned their property to others, who in 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to Queen Anne, after which it became a royal government. By an account published in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been

been about a hundred thousand. Perth Amboy and Burlington are the seats of government. In Bergen county, a very valuable copper mine has been discovered; and the general commerce of the inhabitants is pretty considerable.

The new government of this province is vested in a governor, a legislative council, and a general assembly. The members of the legislative council must be freeholders, and worth a thousand pounds at least, real and personal estate; and the members of the general assembly must be worth five hundred pounds. All inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for representatives in the council and assembly, and for all public officers; and the elections of the governor, legislative council, and general assembly, are to be annual.

According to the present constitution of the province, all persons are allowed to worship God in the manner most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any person compelled to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose of building or repairing any church or churches, or for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately and voluntarily engaged himself to perform. There is to be no establishment of any one religious sect in this province in preference to another; and no Protestant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil rights merely on account of their religious principles.

A college was established at Princeton, in this province, by Governor Belcher, in 1746, which has the power of conferring the same degrees as those of Oxford and Cambridge. Before the commencement of the late war, there were generally from eighty to a hundred students in this seminary, who resorted to it from all parts of the continent: but the valuable library, together with an orrery made by Rittenhouse, reckoned the finest in the world, were totally destroyed by the Hessians during the civil dissensions in 1776.

The other principal towns in New Jersey are, Perth Amboy, Burlington, and Trenton.

Perth Amboy, the capital of the county of Middlesex, in East Jersey, is pleasantly situated at the mouth of the River Raritan; and enjoys such commercial advantages, that ships of three hundred tons burden may come up in one tide, and lie before the very doors of the merchants houses.

Burlington, the capital of the county of the same name, and of all West Jersey, stands on an island in the centre of the Delaware, to the northward of Philadelphia. The houses are handsomely built with brick, and laid out into spacious streets, with commodious quays and wharfs. It has likewise a spacious market-place; a town-house; and two stately bridges over the river, the one called London Bridge, and the other York Bridge. It has an easy communication both with Philadelphia and the ocean, by means of the River Salem, which falls into Delaware Bay.

Trenton, situated on the Delaware, above Burlington, will be ever memorable for the defeat of a body of Hessian troops, which were surprized by General Washington, and near a thousand men made prisoners; which event gave a new turn to the American war.

C H A P. VII.

PENNSYLVANIA.

THIS province is bounded by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the north; by Delaware River, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the east; and by Maryland, on the south and west: lying between 39 and 44 degrees of north latitude, and between 74 and 81 of west longitude; and extending three hundred miles in length, and two hundred and forty in breadth.

Pennsylvania is divided into the following counties: Philadelphia; Chester; Bucks; Berks; Northampton; Lancaster; York; Cumberland; Bedford, which lies to the westward of the mountains on the Ohio; and Newcastle, Kent, and Suffex, lying on the Delaware: which three last are called the Delaware State; and have a president, council, and house of assembly.

The Delaware, which is the most capital river in this province, is navigable for small vessels upwards of two hundred miles above Philadelphia. Susquehanna and Schuylkill are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These streams, together with the numerous creeks and inlets in Delaware Bay, render this province admirably suited for the purposes of an inland and foreign trade.

The general appearance of the country, the air, soil, and produce, do not materially differ from those of New York; but, if there is any variation, it is certainly in favour of this province. The air is uncommonly sweet and serene; but the winters, which continue from December till March, are so extremely severe, that the spacious river of Delaware is frequently frozen over. The months of July, August, and September, on the other hand, are intolerably hot; but the inhabitants are then refreshed by frequent cool breezes.

It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of the British Plantations from New York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those cultivated in Europe; but, whether from some natural defect or fault in the climate or soil where they grow, they have not yet produced any wine worth notice, though the Indians make a sort of beverage from them, with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these colonies, that, towards the south, it becomes less proper for shipping than in the northern provinces: in the more southern latitudes it becomes less compact, and is split with more facility; which property, though it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

The Dutch, who were the first planters in this province, as well as at New York, settled near the bay in the vicinity of that province, and applied themselves chiefly to commercial pursuits. Afterwards some of the inhabitants of Finland settled near the Freshes of Delaware, (the country being so called both above and below the falls of that river for a considerable length) where they applied themselves to agriculture, and had a governor appointed

pointed over them by the King of Sweden, their own sovereign. Between these two neighbouring settlements frequent disputes arose; till the Dutch, becoming too powerful for the Swedes, the latter submitted to their stronger neighbours, and the Swedish governor made a formal surrender of the country to the Dutch; after which this province continued subject to that republic till the English drove them out of New York.

About the time the Dutch were expelled, Admiral Penn (who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica) being highly in favour with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. On the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated Quaker, availed himself of this promise; and, after much court-solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though viewed in the two-fold light of an author and divine, Penn is but little known, except by those of his own persuasion; but his reputation, in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilized nations. The peculiar circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the Quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but to his wisdom and abilities they were solely indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in it's utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man as the general foundation of all his institutions. Christians of every denomination might not only live unmolested, but enjoy a share of the government of the colony. No laws could be enacted but by the concurrence of the inhabitants; even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were subjected by Penn to proper regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be enquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. Causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delays and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence extended even to the Indian nations; for, instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant; charitably judging, that the original property, as well as the eldest right, were vested in them. In short, had Penn been a native of Greece, his statue would have been placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and, as a proof of their good effects, it is only necessary to remark, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds a hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Before the commencement of the war with the parent state, in the vicinity of Philadelphia, land rented at twenty shillings the acre; and, even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years purchase.

In the course of a few years, more people transported themselves into Pennsylvania than into all the other British colonies besides; settlements have been made on the principal rivers, and the country has been cultivated a hundred and fifty miles above Philadelphia. The inhabitants are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial. Though but few of the landed people can be considered as rich, before the commencement of the late war, which has so considerably altered the face of things, they were all well lodged, fed, and clothed;

cloathed; and, according to a calculation made by Dr. Franklin in 1766, the number of white inhabitants amounted to a hundred and sixty thousand.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennsylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of six hundred and eleven thousand pounds. Those exported to Great Britain and other markets, besides timber, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, consisted of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal food; and, at an average of three years, were calculated at seven hundred and five thousand pounds.

In September 1774, the General Congress of America met at Philadelphia; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there till the King's troops made themselves masters of that city in September 1777; but in June 1778, the royal army having retreated to New York, Philadelphia again became the residence of Congress.

In 1776, the representatives of the freemen of Pennsylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed on a plan of a new constitution for that colony. They resolved that the commonwealth or state of Pennsylvania should hereafter be governed by an assembly of the representatives of the freemen of the same, together with a president and council. That the supreme legislative power should be vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the commonwealth or state of Pennsylvania; and that the supreme executive power should be vested in a president and council. That every freeman of twenty-one years of age, having resided in Pennsylvania one year before the day of election for representatives, and paid public taxes during that time, should enjoy the right of an elector; and that the sons of freeholders, of twenty-one years of age and upwards, should be entitled to vote, though they had not paid taxes. That the house of representatives of freemen of this commonwealth should consist of persons most distinguished for wisdom and virtue, to be chosen by the freemen of every city and county of this commonwealth respectively; that no person should be elected, unless he had resided in the city or county for which he should be chosen two years before the election; and that no member, while he continued such, should hold any other office, except in the militia. That no person should be capable of being elected a member to serve in the house of representatives of the freemen of this commonwealth more than four years in seven. That the members of the house of representatives should be annually chosen by ballot, and be stiled, 'The General Assembly of Representatives of the Freemen of Pennsylvania;' and should have power to chuse their speaker, the treasurer of the state, and their other officers; to prepare bills, and to enact them into laws; to redress grievances, impeach state criminals, and enjoy all other powers necessary for the legislature of a free state or commonwealth. That delegates to represent Pennsylvania in Congress should be annually chosen by ballot in the general assembly of representatives. That the supreme executive council of this state should consist of twelve persons, to be chosen by the freemen of Philadelphia, and the several counties of Pennsylvania. That a president and vice-president of this council should be chosen annually; that the said president, and in his absence the vice-president, with the council, five of whom are to constitute a quorum, should have power to appoint and commissionate judges, naval officers, judge of the admiralty, attorney-general, and other officers, civil and military. That the president shall be the commander in chief of the forces of the state; but shall not command in person, except

advised.

advised thereto by the council, and then only so long as they shall approve. That all trials shall be by jury; and that freedom of speech, and of the press, shall not be restrained. That all persons in public offices shall declare their belief in one God, the Creator and Governor of the universe, the rewarder of the good, and the punisher of the wicked; and also acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be given by divine inspiration.

A variety of other articles were also enumerated in this scheme of government; wherein it was likewise determined, that the freemen of this commonwealth, and their sons, should be trained and armed for its defence, under such regulations, restrictions, and exceptions, as the general assembly should by law direct; reserving always to the people the right of choosing their colonel, and all commissioned officers under that rank, in such manner, and as often, as by the said laws should be directed.

Philadelphia, the capital of this province, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity is unequalled by any in Europe, stands in the county of the same name, in 40 degrees 50 minutes north latitude, and in 74 degrees west longitude. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony: and is situated a hundred miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers; the Delaware, about a mile in breadth, on the north; and the Schuylkill on the south; which it in a manner unites, by running in a line of two miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully completed, is laid out in the following manner. Every quarter of the city forms a square of eight acres; and nearly in the centre there is a square of ten acres, surrounded by the Town House, and other public buildings. The High Street is one hundred feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town. Parallel to it run nineteen other streets, which are crossed by eight more at right-angles; all of them thirty feet wide, and communicating with canals from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the salubrity of the city. According to the original plan, every man in possession of a thousand acres in the province had his house in one of the parts facing the river, or in the High Street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other; every owner of five thousand acres, besides the aforementioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of his house; and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court-yards. The proprietor's seat, the usual place of the governor's residence, standing about a mile above the town, both for magnificence and situation, is the finest private building in North America. The barracks for the troops, the market, and other public buildings, are proportionably grand; and the quays are spacious and elegant, the principal being two hundred feet wide.

A great number of opulent merchants formerly resided in this city; which is by no means surprizing, if we consider the extensive trade it carried on with the English, Spanish, French, and Dutch colonies, in America; with the Azores, the Canary, and the Madeira Islands; with Great Britain and Ireland; and with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Besides the India trade, and the quantities of grain, provisions, and all kinds of stores of this colony, which are brought down the rivers on which this city is so advantageously situated, the Germans who are settled in the interior parts of the country employ several hundred waggons, each drawn by four horses, in bringing the produce of their farms to

this market. So long ago as the year 1749, three hundred and three vessels entered inwards at the port of Philadelphia, and two hundred and ninety-one cleared outwards.

An academy is established in this city, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland; and, before the civil war broke out, it seemed likely to become a very flourishing seminary of learning.

The other principal towns in this province are, German Town, Oxford, Radnor, Chester, Chichester, Newcastle, Aquoquineminck, Dover, Lewes, and Lancaster.

At German Town, which is a thriving and populous place, chiefly inhabited by Germans, who still speak their original language, General Washington attacked the British troops in 1777, but was repulsed with great loss.

C H A P. VIII.

MARYLAND.

THIS province is bounded by Pennsylvania on the north; by another part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by Virginia on the south; and by the Apalachian Mountains on the west: lying between 37 and 40 degrees north latitude, and between 75 and 80 west longitude; and extending one hundred and forty miles in length, and one hundred and thirty-five in breadth.

The great bay of Chesapeak divides Maryland into the eastern and western divisions. The western division contains Worcester, Somerset, Dorset, Talbot, Cecil, and Queen Anne's and Kent counties; and the eastern, St. Mary's, Charles's, Prince George's, Calvert, Arundel, Baltimore, and Frederic, counties.

The principal rivers are, the Potowmac, Rocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Sassafras; which, with a number of creeks, indent the whole country, and facilitate the views of commerce.

Though the air in summer is excessively hot, and in winter proportionably cold, no great inconveniences are experienced from these extremes; and in spring and autumn the weather is as pleasant as can be desired. The winters seldom last longer than three or four months, and scarcely ever more than one of them can be called severe.

The face of the country may be divided into the low lands next the sea; the hilly country towards the sources of the rivers; and the Apalachian, or Allegany Mountains, which are exceedingly high, and extend from the north-east to the south-west, parallel to the Atlantic Ocean. The vast numbers of rivers diffuse fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted for rearing tobacco, the staple commodity of the country. Hemp, Indian corn, and all sorts of grain, likewise thrive very well, and now begin to be cultivated in preference to tobacco.

It appears that the colonization of the greatest part of North America originated from religious motives; and Maryland, like those provinces already described, owes its settlement

ment to the same considerations. As the other colonies, however, were principally planted by Protestant sectaries, Maryland was settled by Roman Catholics. Towards the close of the reign of King Charles I. persons of this sect were objects of great hatred to the majority of the English nation, and the laws in force against them were executed with great severity. This rigour partly arose from an opinion that the court was too favourably disposed towards that form of religion; and certain it is, that many marks of royal favour were then conferred on the Roman Catholics. Lord Baltimore, one of the most eminent of that persuasion, was in high favour at court; and, on that account, most odious to the generality of Englishmen. In 1632, this nobleman obtained a grant from King Charles of that country which was formerly considered as a part of Virginia, but now called Maryland, in honour of Queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. and spouse to Charles I. The following year, about two hundred popish families, some of them of considerable distinction, embarked with Lord Baltimore, to enter on the possession of this new territory. These settlers, animated with that liberality which distinguishes gentlemen of every religious persuasion, bought their lands at an easy price from the native Indians: they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and perfect harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, till the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia; who envying the prosperity of this popish colony, enflamed the Indians against it by ill-grounded reports, but such as were sufficient to excite the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who, from dear-bought experience, had great reason to be vigilant. On this occasion, however, the colony was not inattentive to its own safety: though the settlers continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities. To defeat the malicious machinations which had been contrived against them, gave a new spring to the activity of the planters, who were likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching Revolution. But, during the usurpation of Oliver Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland; Baltimore was ungenerously deprived of his charter, and a new governor, appointed by the Protector, substituted in his room. At the Restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor; Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so.

This nobleman established a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the consequence of which was, that the colony increased and flourished; and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked to Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their possessions, acquired originally by royal bounty, and improved with much care and expence. At the Revolution, however, Lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not be delegated to a Roman Catholic with any degree of political consistency; but the family having changed their religious sentiments, they obtained the power, as well as the interest. The government in this country exactly resembled that of Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown.

The

The government of Maryland is now vested in a governor, senate, and house of delegates; all which are to be annually elected. The governor is to be chosen by ballot, by the senate, and house of delegates. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having freeholds of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates; and all persons appointed to any offices of profit or trust, are to subscribe declarations of their belief in the Christian religion.

Annapolis, the capital of the province, is situated on the River Severn. But though the governor resides there; and the courts of justice are held in the town, the houses in it do not much exceed one hundred; for, throughout the whole colony, the inhabitants live on their several plantations, which are generally situated on some navigable creek or river; by which means the planters have the convenience of shipping their own produce to England, and other parts, and of being supplied from thence with foreign commodities. Hence all the towns are extremely small: and though several hundred sail of ships are annually employed in the commerce of this country, tobacco is the only valuable commodity it produces.

In 1782, a college was founded at Chester Town, in this province, under the name of Washington College, in honour of General Washington; and Dr. William Smith was appointed the first president.

The number of white inhabitants in Maryland has been calculated at ninety thousand; and, of negro slaves, at twenty-five thousand: but the late intestine broils, so inimical to the progress of population, have rendered all computations of this kind very uncertain.

CHAP. IX.

VIRGINIA.

VIRGINIA contains a very extensive territory, lying between 36 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and between 75 and 90 of west longitude; and extends about seven hundred and fifty miles in length, and two hundred and forty in breadth. It is bounded by the River Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-east; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by Carolina on the south; and by the River Mississippi on the west.

Virginia may properly be divided into four parts; the north, the middle, the south, and the east divisions. The north division contains Northumberland, Lancaster, Westmoreland, Richmond, and Stafford, counties; the middle division contains Essex, Middlesex, Gloucester, King and Queen, King William, New Kent, Elizabeth, Warwick, York, and Princess Ann, counties; the south division contains Norfolk, Nanseamund, Isle of Wight, Surrey, Prince George, Charles, Henrico, and James, counties; and the east division, which lies between Chesapeake Bay and the ocean, consists only of Accomack county.

In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, it is necessary to pass between two points of land called the Capes of Virginia, which open a passage into the bay of Chesapeake, one of the largest

largest and safest in the whole world, as it perforates the country near three hundred miles, from the south to the north: it's breadth is about eighteen miles for a considerable extent; and, where narrowest, seven; and it is in every part furnished with at least eight or nine fathoms water: This bay, through it's whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers, both from the sides of Maryland and Virginia; and from the latter, besides those of inferior consequence, James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Potowmac: these rivers are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller streams, that Virginia is unquestionably, of all countries in the world, the most convenient for navigation; for, as it has been truly observed, almost every planter has a river at his own door.

Towards the sea the whole face of the country is so extremely low, that land cannot be discovered even from the mast's head except at a very inconsiderable distance. The lofty trees which cover the soil gradually rise, as it were, from the ocean, and afford the most enchanting prospects; and, for more than a hundred miles up the country, there is not a single hill to be seen.

Refreshing breezes from the sea moderate the excessive heats in summer. The weather, however, is extremely variable, and the transitions are sudden and violent: winter frosts sometimes succeed the mildest day; and the cold is frequently so intense, as to freeze the whole surface of a navigable river in the space of one night.

With respect to heat and cold, dryness and moisture, the air and seasons very much depend on the wind. In winter, the air is serene and dry, which renders it very pleasant. The spring is about a month earlier than in England. In April there are frequent rains. In May and June the heat increases: and the summer is much the same as in England, being refreshed by gentle breezes from the sea, which generally begin about nine o'clock in the morning, and increase and decrease as the sun rises or falls. In July and August those breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot. In September, the weather generally changes; when heavy and frequent rains commence, which occasion that train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. Thunder and lightning are also extremely frequent and tremendous, but seldom attended with any fatal effects.

Near the sea-shore and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At some distance from the sea, the earth becomes light and sandy: which, however, is of a very generous nature; and, when invigorated by a genial sun, yields corn and tobacco in the most luxuriant abundance.

From what has been observed of the climate and soil, the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country may be easily deduced. The forests are overspread with all sorts of lofty trees: and as neither underwood nor bushes grow beneath, people travel on horseback through the forests with ease and pleasure, under a fine shade which defends them from the sun; while the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering-shrubs of the richest tints and most odoriferous fragrance. Silk grows spontaneously in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root and

ginger, so much celebrated in China, are produced in great abundance; and every sort of grain might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are so busied in the culture of the tobacco-plant, that they can only raise corn sufficient for their internal consumption. Flax and hemp, indeed, are planted in such quantities, that a considerable stock remains for exportation after satisfying all necessary domestic demands; and so excellently is the soil adapted for the production of these commodities, that Virginia is capable of supplying all Europe with these useful articles.

Before the discovery of America, there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs, in that quarter of the globe; but some of each having been carried thither by the Europeans, they have multiplied so prodigiously, that many of them, particularly in Virginia and the southern colonies, run wild. Before the commencement of the war between Great Britain and her colonies, beef and pork were sold in this province from one penny to two-pence a pound; the finest pullets at sixpence each; chickens at three or four shillings a dozen; geese at ten-pence each; and turkeys at eighteen pence: fish and wild-fowl were still cheaper in their seasons; and a fat buck was usually sold for nine or ten shillings. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were equally plentiful and cheap; and, in some of them, lower.

Besides the animals transported from Europe to this country, the following are natural to it; namely, deer, of which there are vast numbers, a sort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. That singular animal called the opossum, which seems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix in his History of Canada, is likewise a native of this country: it grows to the size of a cat; and, besides the belly common to other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture towards the hinder legs, which discovers a great number of teats on the usual parts of the common belly: on these, when the female conceives, the young are formed; and there they hang, like fruit on the stalk, till they are grown, in weight and bulk, to their appointed size; and then they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from whence they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge on every appearance of danger.

Virginia abounds with all sorts of wild and domestic fowl. Among others, the Virginian nightingale, the plumage of which is crimson and blue; the mocking-bird, thought to excel all others in its natural note, and to include that of every one; and the humming-bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, being wholly arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold: this last bird sips the dew from the flowers, and is of such a delicate nature, that it cannot be imported alive into Europe.

The inhabitants of Virginia are a cheerful, hospitable, and in general genteel sort of people. Some of them indeed are characterized as vain and ostentatious: nor does this imputation appear groundless; for though there are not many very rich planters in this province, there is scarcely an individual so poor as to be reduced to a state of beggary; but should any one happen to be disabled, through age or infirmity, from providing for himself, he is quartered on some substantial planter, and comfortably provided for at the public expence.

As

As the commerce of Virginia and Maryland is entirely of the same kind, we have included both under this head. These provinces were formerly supposed to export to Great Britain, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of seven hundred and sixty-eight thousand pounds; which, at eight pounds per hoghead, makes the number of hogheads amount to ninety-six thousand. Of these, it is computed that about thirteen thousand five hundred hogheads were consumed at home, the duty on which amounts to three hundred and fifty-one thousand six hundred and seventy-five pounds; and the remaining eighty-two thousand five hundred hogheads were exported by our merchants to the other European countries, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages which arose from this trade are sufficiently obvious; and it may not be improper to add, that this single branch employed three hundred and thirty sail of ships, and seven thousand nine hundred and sixty seamen. The other commodities of these colonies, of which naval stores, wheat, Indian corn, and iron in pigs and bars, are the most considerable, made the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to one million and forty thousand pounds sterling. The exports of Great Britain, the same as to our other colonies, at a like average, amounted to eight hundred and sixty-five thousand pounds.

This was the first American country planted by the English, who derived their right, not only to it, but to all their other settlements, as has been previously observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who in 1497 first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it, till the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when Sir Walter Raleigh having applied to government, collected a party, composed of several persons of distinction and eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and settle a colony in that part of the world; which, in honour of Queen Elizabeth, was called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made to settle this colony, which in general proved abortive. The three first companies which failed to Virginia either perished through hunger and diseases, or were massacred by the Indians. The fourth was reduced to the lowest ebb; and, having dwindled to a feeble remainder, and despairing of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by hostile and warlike nations, had set sail for England: but, in the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, they were met by Lord Delawar, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned; and, by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its internal enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the declining state of his health, to return to England. He left behind him his son, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them James Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the civil wars in Great Britain; and many of the cavaliers, who were in danger at home, took
shelter

shelter in this province; and, under the government of Sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, till the parliament reduced them rather by stratagem than force.

After the Restoration, the history of this province presents us with nothing remarkable. Soon after this era, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, having availed himself of some discontents in the province on account of restraints imposed on trade, became very popular, and threw every thing into confusion. His natural death, however, restored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia, opening their eyes to their true interest, ceased to ruin themselves.

The government of this province is at present vested in a governor, senate, and house of delegates; all of whom are annually elected. Besides these, a privy council, or council of state, consisting of eight members, is also chosen by the senate and house of delegates, to assist in the administration of government.

The only towns of any importance in this province are, James Town, and Williamsburg.

James Town, which was formerly esteemed the capital, is situated on a peninsula formed by James River, about forty miles from its mouth, in 76 degrees west longitude, and 37 degrees 30 minutes north latitude; and contains about eighty or one hundred houses, the greatest part of which are taverns, or public-houses, for the entertainment of mariners. Its situation is naturally strong; but the fortifications have been neglected.

Williamsburg, the present capital of Virginia, stands about seven miles from James Town, between James and York Rivers, in 37 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, and in 76 degrees 30 minutes west longitude. But though it is the seat of government, it contains scarcely one hundred houses: it has, however, an elegant town-house; and is honoured with a college, called William and Mary College, founded by King William, who gave two thousand pounds towards its establishment, and twenty thousand acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of two thousand pounds a year; and bestowed on it likewise a duty of one penny in the pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. It consists of a president, six professors, and other officers, who are nominated by the governors or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle, that munificent patron of virtue, literature, and mankind, made a very large donation to the college for the purpose of educating Indian children.

CHAP. X.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

THESE provinces are bounded by Virginia on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by the River St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the south; and by the Mississippi on the west: lying between 30 and 37 degrees north latitude, and between 76 and 91 west longitude; and being seven hundred miles in length, and three hundred and eighty in breadth.

North

North Carolina contains Albemarle, Bath, and part of Clarendon, counties; South Carolina contains part of Clarendon county, Craven, Berkeley, Colleton, and Granville, counties; but Georgia has received no subdivisions.

The most considerable rivers in these districts are, the Roanoke, or Albemarle River; Pamlico; Nues; Cape Fear, or Clarendon River; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatomaha, or George River; and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida: all which rivers rise in the Apalachian Mountains; and, running an eastward course, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yafous, Mobbile, Apalachicola, the Pearl River, and many other spacious streams which fall into the Mississippi or the Gulf of Mexico.

The Atlantic Ocean is the only part of the watery element that borders on this country; which is so shallow near the coast, that a ship of considerable burden can approach it only in a few places. North Carolina does not furnish one good harbour: the best, however, is that of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle River; and Pamlico. In South Carolina are the harbours of Winyaw or George Town, Charles Town, and Port Royal: and, in Georgia, the mouths of the Rivers Savannah and Alatomaha form pretty commodious havens.

The most remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 degrees north latitude; Cape Fear, to the southward; and Cape Carteret, still farther in the same direction.

No essential difference is perceptible between the climates of these countries: in general, they agree with those of Virginia; but where any difference arises, it is in favour of Carolina. The summers, indeed, are more intensely hot in the latter than in the former; but the winters are milder and shorter. Like all American weather, the climate of Carolina is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to such violent extremes as Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable body of water, and affect only the mornings and evenings. The frosts never have potency enough to resist the meridian sun; so that many tender plants, which are unable to endure the winter of Virginia, flourish in Carolina; and near Charles Town, excellent oranges, both sweet and sour, are produced.

In the soil, produce, and general appearance of the country, there is likewise a manifest agreement between these provinces and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, have the advantage in natural fertility; but Georgia is inferior to the other provinces in the richness of its soil; and, where the planters have not cleared it, the whole country is, in a manner, one continued forest. The trees are almost the same in every respect with those produced in Virginia; and, by their different species, the quality of the soil is easily perceptible. The land in Carolina is cleared with abundant facility, there being very little underwood; and the forests generally consist of tall trees at a considerable distance from each other. Those parts which produce the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile, being composed of a dark sand intermixed with loam; and as all the other lands abound with nitre, it is not soon exhausted; and no manure is ever used. Where pines arrive at the greatest perfection, the land is extremely sterile; but, from their natural produce, pitch, tar, and turpentine, are reaped in abundance. When this species of land is cleared for two or

three years successively, it produces luxuriant crops of Indian corn and peas; and, where it lies low, and is liable to be flooded, it answers very well for rice. But the most fortunate circumstance for this country is, that this most sterile part of it is favourable to a species of the most valuable of all its products, namely, one of the kinds of indigo; while the low, rich, swampy grounds, produce abundance of that staple commodity, rice.

Near the sea, the country is in many respects very disagreeable, and little better than an unhealthy salt-marsh; and Carolina is a perfect champain for eighty miles from the sea, not a hill, a rock, or scarcely a pebble, being perceptible in all that space. The country, however, as we advance into it, gradually improves; and, at the distance of a hundred miles from Charles Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is prodigiously fertile, and adapted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be more delightful to the eye than the variegated disposition of the country as it recedes from the sea. The air, at this distance, is pure and salubrious; and the heat of summer much more temperate than near the level, sandy coast.

In the Carolinas, vegetation is surprizingly rapid: the climate and soil contain something in them so genial, that the latter, even when left to itself, protrudes an immense quantity of flowers and flowering-shrubs. All European plants arrive at greater perfection than in their native regions; and, with proper culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil, might be produced in these colonies: of the first, indeed, samples have been exhibited in England, equal to any from Italy. In the back settlements, wheat thrives amazingly, and yields a prodigious increase.

The general productions, then, of these valuable provinces, appear to be vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine-trees; white mulberry-trees, for feeding silk-worms; sarsaparilla; and pines, which yield pitch, tar, rosin, and turpentine. There is a tree from which exudes an oil of extraordinary efficacy in curing wounds; another, which yields a kind of balm, supposed to be little inferior to that of Mecca; and there are likewise other trees which distil gums. But the most curious vegetable production of these provinces is the Indian fig, commonly called the prickly pear, which grows in great plenty, and seems to be only a collection of leaves without trunk or boughs; for a leaf set in the ground takes root and produces other leaves, which grow one above another, till they arrive at a considerable height, the leaves diverging in the form of boughs: these leaves are long, broad, thicker than a man's hand, of a deep green colour, and thick set with long, sharp, and slender prickles. From the tops of the leaves rise long yellow flowers, resembling those of the pomegranate-tree, from which is produced a fruit similar to the common fig, internally filled with a red pulp of a blood-colour, and very sweet and luscious; but which produces such a tincture in the urine of those who eat it, that it appears like pure blood, though its effects are perfectly innocent. The tops of these figs are encircled with scaly leaves, in the shape of crowns, in which are contained the seeds: these being sown, produce round-bodied plants like the trunks of other trees, with leaves growing on them, as already described; but if these leaves are plucked off, and planted in the ground, they bring forth

forth trees of leaves only. On this plant grow certain excrescences, from which are said to proceed the cochineal insects, so much valued for dyeing the richest scarlet.

The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which excellent spirits are made; and mead equal to Malaga sack. However, the three great staple commodities at present are, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine.

Nothing surprizes an European more, at first sight of this country, than the prodigious size of it's trees, the trunks of which are often from fifty to seventy feet high, without either branches or limbs; and frequently upwards of thirty-six feet in circumference. Of these trunks, when excavated, the inhabitants of Charles Town, as well as the native Indians, make canoes, which serve to transport provisions and other goods from place to place; and one of them is so very large, that though formed of but one piece of timber, it is capable of carrying thirty or forty barrels of pitch; and of these vast pieces of timber the natives also construct very curious pleasure-boats.

The indigenous animals of these provinces differ very little from those of Virginia; but in Carolina the variety of beautiful fowls is still more immense. All the animals common to Europe are plentiful; black cattle multiply extremely; and it is no uncommon thing for a planter to possess two or three hundred cows, and sometimes even a thousand: these range the forests during the day-time; but their calves being kept in fenced pastures, the cows return to them every evening. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows; and, being very numerous, many of them, as well as cows and horses, run wild in the woods.

Considering the vast numbers of wolves, tigers, and panthers, which continually range the woods, it is astonishing that all sorts of cattle should have increased so prodigiously since their first importation from Europe: but, as before observed, the American beasts of prey are less formidable than those of Africa and Asia, and seldom attempt to kill either calves or foals; but, whenever they begin the attack, the dams generally make a vigorous defence.

The English attempted to colonize Carolina at a pretty early period; but their first expedition having proved unfortunate, nothing successful was accomplished in this way till the reign of Charles II. in 1663. At that time several English noblemen and persons of distinction obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of this country; and they accordingly parcelled out the lands to such as were inclined to emigrate to the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws which the immortal Locke composed for that purpose. They began their first settlement on a point of land to the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers: there they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles Town, intended for the capital of the province, which rank it still maintains. In time, however, the disputes between the adherents of the Church of England and the dissenters became very violent, and occasioned a total confusion in the colony; which was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the natural consequences of these intestine divisions and external attacks, an act of parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompense of about twenty-four thousand pounds for both the property and jurisdiction;

jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony, in those respects in which it differed from the royal government, was altered: Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which is still in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, Carolina, on this occasion, was divided into two districts, and two governments. This revolution happened in 1728; and from that time peace having been restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to recover, and their trade advanced with uncommon rapidity.

The colonization of Georgia was projected in 1732; when several public-spirited noblemen and gentlemen, from the purest motives of compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with ten thousand pounds from government, was expended in providing necessaries for such indigent persons as were disposed to transport themselves into this country, and to submit to the imposed regulations. In process of time, new sums were raised, and new adventurers sent over; and, before the year 1752, upwards of one thousand persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, probable, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a distance from their benefactors, and from the check and controul of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them: many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very absurd in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours were permitted to enjoy, and which, as they increased in numbers and opulence, they thought it unjust to be debarred of. From these corrupt sources arose all those animosities which rent asunder the constitution of government: dissensions of all kinds sprung up; and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when the government, in 1752, took it under its immediate care, removed the most flagrant grievances, allayed the natural jealousy and discontents of the settlers, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

The method of settling in Carolina, and, indeed, in most other provinces of British America, was to pitch on a vacant space of ground, and either to purchase it at the rate of twenty pounds for one thousand acres, and one shilling quit-rent for every hundred acres; or, otherwise, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent to the proprietors yearly, without laying out any purchase-money. The Carolinians live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner, as the Virginians, already described; poverty is almost totally unknown; the planters are extremely hospitable to strangers; and their benevolence to such persons as, either through accident or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themselves, in a great measure compensates for the injury of fate.

North and South Carolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt against Great Britain; and, in 1780, Charles Town, the capital, having been besieged by the king's troops, surrendered by capitulation on the 4th of May, in the same year, after a siege of upwards of a month.

The government of North Carolina, in consequence of the acknowledged independence of the United States, is vested in a governor, senate, and house of commons, all elected annually; of South Carolina, in a governor, senate, and house of representatives; and that of Georgia, in a governor, executive council, and house of assembly.

As

As South Carolina was most populous and opulent, its commerce alone employed one hundred and forty ships; while that of North Carolina and Georgia did not employ sixty. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than three hundred and ninety-five thousand pounds annual value; and its imports to three hundred and sixty-five thousand. The exports of North Carolina were calculated at sixty-eight thousand pounds, and the imports at about eighteen thousand. The trade of Georgia is likewise in its infancy; the exports amounted to little more than seventy-four thousand pounds, and the imports to forty-nine thousand. The commerce between Carolina and the West Indies was very extensive; their trade with the Indians was likewise in a very flourishing condition; and they formerly exported English goods, by means of pack-horses, five or six hundred miles into the country west of Charles Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours; and, excepting one at Cape Fear, do not admit vessels of more than sixty or seventy tons: and as the expence of lighterage is very considerable, that circumstance proves an insuperable obstacle to trade.

The only town in either of the Carolinas, of any geographical importance, is Charles Town, the metropolis of South Carolina; which, for magnitude, beauty, and trade, may be considered as one of the first in the United States. Situated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, which admit ships a considerable way above the town, it is admirably adapted for the purposes of commerce. A bar, however, at the mouth of the harbour, prevents vessels of more than two hundred tons from entering; but, in other respects, this port is extremely safe and commodious. The town is regularly and strongly fortified both by nature and art; the streets are laid out with taste; and the houses are large and well built, some of wood, and others of brick, but all finished with an eye to convenience and elegance; and the rents are extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right-angles; and those which run east and west extend about a mile from the one river to the other.

Charles Town contains about a thousand houses; and was formerly the seat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the assembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond conception; and several handsome equipages are kept by the inhabitants. The planters and merchants are rich and well-bred: and, before the late civil wars, the people were shewy and expensive in their dress and way of living; so that every thing conspired to render it the most lively, delightful, polite, and opulent place, in all America. For the honour of the Carolinians it should be observed, that when, in common with the other colonies, they resolved against the use of certain luxuries, and even necessities of life, those articles which improve the mind, enlarge the understanding, and correct the taste, were excepted, the importation of books being permitted without limitation.

The town of Beaufort, situated on the island of Port Royal, on the confines of Georgia, about a hundred miles south of Charles Town, has a fine harbour, capable of containing the whole royal navy of England; but the town itself is as yet inconsiderable, though it bids fair for becoming, in time, the first commercial place in this quarter of America.

Edenton, though an insignificant village, was formerly considered as the capital of North Carolina.

Savannah, the capital of Georgia, in 31 degrees 58 minutes north latitude, is commodiously situated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the sea, on a noble river of the same name, navigable by large boats for two hundred miles farther. In this town there is a church, a meeting-house, and a wharf, besides other public buildings; and in it the celebrated Mr. Whitefield founded an orphan-house, which is now converted into a college for the education of young men designed chiefly for the ministry; and, through his zeal and pious care, this seminary was lately in a very flourishing condition. From the town of Savannah the whole course of the river towards the sea is visible; and, on the other hand, for sixty miles up the country, the view is pleasant and unconfined.

In October 1779, Savannah, then in possession of the king's troops, was besieged by American and French troops in conjunction; but, by the spirited exertions of General Prevost, they were repulsed with great slaughter: soon after which, the French troops were re-embarked, and the enterprize was abandoned.

Augusta, the only other town in Georgia worthy of notice, is situated two hundred miles higher up the River Savannah. It stands on a very fertile spot of ground; and is so commodiously situated for the Indian trade, that, ever since the first establishment of the colony, it has been in a most flourishing condition, and very early maintained six hundred whites in the trade only. The inhabitants carry on a lucrative commerce with the Creeks, the Chickesaws, and the Cherokees, in skins and furs: but, in this warm climate, furs are far less valuable than to the northward; Providence having wisely ordained, that animals should be clothed in proportion to their exigences; that they should be fitted by the warmth of their coverings to repel the northern frosts, and by their coolness to endure the tropical heats.

CHAP. XI.

SPANISH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

THIS country, to which the Spaniards have given the name of Florida, was first discovered by Sebastian Cabot, eighteen years before it was known to the Spaniards: but, after having been peopled by that nation, it was ceded to Great Britain on the pacification of 1763; and, by the late treaty, was again resigned to Spain. It is bounded by Georgia on the north; by the Mississippi on the west; by the Gulph of Mexico on the south; and by the Bahama Straits on the east: lying between 25 and 32 degrees of north latitude, and between 80 and 91 of west longitude; and being about five hundred miles long, and four hundred and forty broad.

The

The principal river in Florida is the Mississippi, one of the largest and finest in the world : for, including it's turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of four thousand five hundred miles : but it's mouths are in a manner choaked up with sands and shoals, which deny access to vessels of any considerable burden ; there being, according to some geographers, only twelve feet water over the bar at the principal entrance, though others assert that there are seventeen. But within the bar there are one hundred fathoms water ; and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain season, when, like the Nile, it overflows it's banks, and becomes extremely rapid. Except at the entrance, already mentioned, it is every where free from shoals and cataracts, and navigable for small craft to it's very source. The Mobile, Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are also large and noble streams ; and, in any other country, would be esteemed remarkable : but the Mississippi absorbs all the other rivers of Florida ; and, from it's own superior magnitude, renders them of little consequence.

The chief bays are those of St. Barnard, Ascension, Mobile, Pensacola, Dauphin, Joseph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles.

The principal capes are, Cape Blanco ; Samblas ; Ancloste ; and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninsula.

Various accounts have been propagated respecting the salubrity of the air ; but, that it is far from being inimical to the health of the natives, may be deduced from the size, vigour, and longevity, of the Floridian Indians ; who, in these respects, far exceed their more southern neighbours the Mexicans.

Near the sea, and forty miles backward, East Florida is flat and sandy ; but even the country round St. Augustine, which apparently is the most sterile of any in the province, produces two crops of Indian corn yearly ; garden vegetables in great perfection ; and oranges and lemons, both in flavour and magnitude, preferable to those of Spain and Portugal. The interior country towards the hills is also extremely rich and fertile, producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, which are common to Georgia and the Carolinas ; and is likewise propitious to the cultivation of European productions.

This country affords rice, indigo, ambergris, and cochineal ; amethysts, turquoises, lapis lazuli, and other precious stones ; copper, quicksilver, pit-coal, and iron-ore : pearls are also found on some parts of the coast ; and mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, though inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica.

One of the most singular vegetable productions in this, or indeed any other country, is the cabbage-tree, called by some authors the palmetto royal. The trunk bulges out a little near the ground, and gives it the graceful appearance of a substantial basis on which to support it's towering height. It is generally perfectly straight ; and, when about thirty years old, hardly any pillar of the nicest order in architecture can be more regular. It rises above a hundred feet high ; the trunk near the ground being about six or seven feet in circumference, and the whole body tapering to the top. The colour of the bark resembles that of the ash-tree ; and is faintly clouded, at the distance of every four or five inches, with the vestigia of the decayed branches : this colour of the bark continues till within twenty-five or thirty feet of the extremity, where it changes at once from an ash to a beautiful

beautiful deep sea-green, which continues to the very summit. About five feet from the commencement of the green part, the trunk is encircled with it's numerous branches, all the lowermost spreading horizontally with great regularity; and the extremities of many of the higher branches bend, and wave downwards like so many plumes of feathers. These branches, when full-grown, are about twenty feet long, and thick-set on the trunk, rising gradually superior to each other, the top being terminated by a beautiful upright green conic spire: they are also decorated with a vast number of green-pointed leaves, some of them near three feet long, and an inch and a half broad, growing narrower towards their points, as well as gradually decreasing in length towards the extremities of the branches. It is remarkable that the lowermost branch drops monthly from the tree, carrying with it an exfoliated circular lamen of the green part of the tree, from the insertion of the branches to the ash-coloured part; and this, as well as the branch to which it is fixed, always fall together. When the loss of this lower branch happens, the green conic spire which issues from the centre of the superior branches, and overtops them all, bursts, and protrudes from it's side a young branch, which continues the uppermost till another of the inferior branches drops off, when the spire again sends forth a branch superior in situation to the last: and thus the loss of the branch below is always supplied by the growth of one above. The interior texture of the leaves appears to be several longitudinal thread-like filaments; which, being spun, are manufactured into cordage of every kind, as well as fishing-nets. What is called the cabbage, lies in many thin, white, brittle flakes, which have something of the taste of almonds; and, when boiled, of cabbage, but sweeter and more luscious.

Animals are so very numerous in Florida, that a good saddle-horse may be had in exchange for goods of five shillings value, prime cost; and there have been instances of horses having been exchanged for a hatchet per head.

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, is situated near the frontiers of Georgia, in 29 degrees 50 minutes north latitude; and was originally built by the Spaniards. The city runs along the shore, at the foot of a pleasant hill adorned with trees; and is of an oblong figure, divided by four regular streets which cross each other at right-angles. Close to the sea-shore, about three quarters of a mile to the southward of the town, stands the church and monastery of St. Augustine. On the north of the town is situated the castle called Fort St. John, round which are some very elegant structures. The castle is a quadrangular building of soft stone, fortified with whole bastions, a rampart twenty feet high, and a parapet nine feet thick; and is casemated. The town is likewise fortified with bastions, and inclosed with a ditch; and the whole is well mounted with cannon. The harbour is formed by the north end of Santa Anastasia, an island nine leagues long; and a long neck of land divided from the continent by the River St. Mark, which discharges itself into the sea a little above the castle. At the entrance of this harbour are the North and South Breakers, forming two channels, with bars covered with eight or nine feet water at low tide: and on the north and south there are two small Indian towns, without the city walls.

The exports from East Florida are very inconsiderable, the produce of the Indian trade being almost all that can be spared, for the country is not yet by any means well cultivated; and, on account of it's having frequently changed it's masters, as well as the consequent ravages

ravages of war, a considerable time must elapse before it's population and trade can be brought to a state of perfection.

Pensacola, the capital of West Florida, is situated on the island of Santa Rosa, which is about thirty-three miles in length, and separated from the main-land by a channel half a league broad, and only navigable for small boats. The landing-place is within the bay, in very shallow water; the town being built on a white sandy shore, which can only be approached by small craft. The road, however, is one of the best in the Gulph of Mexico, and in it vessels may ride secure from every wind. The bottom affords excellent anchorage; and the sea is never greatly agitated, on account of it's being surrounded by the land on every side. Pensacola was lately defended by a small fort surrounded by stoccadoes; and the principal structure it contained was the governor's, a very handsome fabric, adorned with turrets.

The complexions of the Floridian Indians are of an olive hue; their bodies are robust, and finely proportioned; and both sexes go naked, except that they have deers skins round their waists. The women are extremely handsome; and so very active, that they are capable of climbing to the tops of the highest trees with surprizing swiftness, and swimming across the broadest rivers with their children hung at their backs. The men use bows and arrows in war; and are in general satisfied with one wife, though their chiefs are indulged with concubinage. Both sexes worship the sun and the moon.

The banks of the Mississippi, the Misauris, and the Ohio, are inhabited by a number of warlike nations, whose native freedom has not yet been abridged by the intrusions of Europeans: these are the Cherokees, the Chickesaws, and the White Indians; for a description of whom we refer our readers to the general account of the native Americans.

CHAP. XII.

NEW MEXICO, WITH CALIFORNIA.

THIS country is bounded by unknown lands on the north; by Louisiana on the east; by Old Mexico and the Pacific Ocean on the south; and by the same ocean on the west: lying between 23 and 43 degrees of north latitude, and between 94 and 126 of west longitude; and extending about two thousand miles in length, and one thousand six hundred in breadth.

The north-east division of this country contains New Mexico Proper, the capital of which is Santa Fe; the south-east division contains Apacheira, the chief town of which is St. Antonio; the south division contains Sonora, the chief town of which is Tuape; and the west division consists of the peninsula of California, the principal town of which is St. Juan.

These countries, lying for the most part within the temperate zone, are blessed with a climate in many places highly agreeable; and enjoy a soil productive of every thing which

can contribute either to the profit or delight of mankind. In California, however, the summer heats are excessive, particularly towards the sea-coast; but, in the interior parts, the climate is more temperate, and the winters are even cold.

The natural history of these tracts is yet in it's infancy. The Spaniards, who are the proprietors of the country, know but little of the matter; and, what little they do know, they sedulously conceal from the rest of mankind. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who in a great measure possess their original independence, they are jealous of disclosing the natural advantages of these countries, which might perhaps operate as incentives for other European nations to attempt establishments in them. It is certain, however, that the provinces of New Mexico and California are in general extremely beautiful and pleasant; and that the face of the country is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various sorts of trees, some of which produce the most delicious fruits. With respect to the value of the gold mines in these countries, nothing positive can be asserted; but there are unquestionably natural productions sufficiently valuable to render these colonies important to any people less indolent than the Spaniards.

In California a vast quantity of dew falls every morning; which, settling on the rose-leaves, candies, becomes hard like manna, and possesses all that sweetness peculiar to refined sugar, without it's whiteness. In the centre of the peninsula there are plains of salt, perfectly firm, and pellucid like crystal; which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on the coast, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

Though the Spanish settlements are constantly increasing in proportion as new mines are discovered, they are still comparatively weak. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, and taught to raise corn and wine, which they now export to Old Mexico in considerable quantities.

California was originally discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; but Sir Francis Drake, the celebrated English navigator, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief, of the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not yet attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and has a pearl-fishery of great value on it's coast. It was long considered as an island; but is now demonstrated to be a peninsula in the Pacific Ocean, issuing from the north coast of America, and extending from Cape Sebastian, in 43 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, to the south-east, where it is terminated by St. Lucar, in 22 degrees 32 minutes north latitude; the whole peninsula being eight hundred miles in length.

The inhabitants and government of these countries do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico, which we are about to describe.

Santa Fe, the capital of New Mexico, is a handsome, well-built town, situated near the source of the Rio del Norte, in 36 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and in 101 degrees 15 minutes west longitude, from London. It is built after a regular plan; and is an episcopal see, suffragan to that of Mexico; and the residence of the governor, who enjoys his post for the term of five years.

C H A P. XIII.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

THIS very extensive province is bounded by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north ; by the Gulph of Mexico on the north-east ; by Terra Firma on the south-east ; and by the Pacific Ocean on the south-west : lying between 8 and 30 degrees of north latitude, and between 83 and 110 of west longitude ; and extending two thousand miles in length, and six hundred in breadth.

Old Mexico is divided into three audiences ; namely, Galicia, or Guadalajazza ; Mexico Proper ; and Guatimala.

The principal bays on the north coast are, the gulphs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras. In the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays of Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas.

The chief capes are those of Sardo, St. Martin, Cornducedo, Catoche, Honduras, Cameron and Gracios Dios, in the North Sea ; and, in the South Sea, are Cape Marques, Spirito Sancto, Corientes, Gallero, Blanco, Burica, Pruceos, and Mala.

About the full and change of the moon, from October till March, strong winds prevail in the Gulph of Mexico and the adjacent seas. Trade-winds are experienced every where at a distance from land within the tropical climates ; and, in the South Sea, near the coasts, there are periodical winds called monsoons, and sea and land breezes much the same as in Asia.

Mexico, lying principally within the torrid zone, is excessively hot ; and on the eastern shore, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, the air is extremely inimical to health. The interior country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperature ; and, on the western side, the land is higher than on the eastern, as well as richer, and better peopled. The soil of Mexico in general is far from being sterile ; and, were the industry of the inhabitants correspondent to their natural advantages, would produce any sort of grain.

Like all the tropical countries, Mexico abounds more in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts, are plentiful, and in the highest perfection. Mexico likewise produces a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the Gulph, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatimala ; so that there are more sugar-mills in this district than in any other part of Spanish America.

The valuable gold and silver mines of Mexico are regarded as the chief honour of the country, and first induced the Spaniards to establish colonies on it. The most celebrated gold mines are those of Veragua and New Granada, bordering on Darien and Terra Firma ; and those of silver, which are infinitely more rich, as well as more numerous, are found in several

several parts, but particularly in the province of Mexico. Both of these precious metals are always discovered in the most sterile and mountainous parts of the country; nature compensating in one respect for her defects in another.

The working of both the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug up, which is composed of several heterogeneous substances mixed with the precious metals, it is broken by a mill into small particles, and afterwards washed; by which means it is disengaged from the light earthy substances which adhered to it. After this process, it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a much stronger one for silver than for the other substances which are united with it in the ore: hence the mercury separates the gold and silver from other heterogeneous matter; and then, by straining and evaporation, they are dis-united from the mercury itself.

Immense calculations have been made of the gold and silver produced from the Mexican mines. Those who seem to have investigated this subject with the greatest attention, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions sterling; and it is a well-known fact, that this, and the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver.

Next to gold and silver, the other Mexican articles of highest estimation are cochineal and cocoa. After a diversity of opinions and arguments among naturalists, it seems at last to be agreed on all hands that cochineal is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. From this juice the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dyeing all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple: it is also efficacious in medicine both as a sudorific and a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity, for the purposes of medicine and dyeing.

Cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next considerable article in the natural history and commerce of Mexico. This valuable and salubrious fruit grows on a middling-sized tree, which bears a pod about the shape and magnitude of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce, in this article alone, is immense; and such is its internal consumption, as well as the foreign demand for it, that a small garden of cocoas is said to produce to its proprietor twenty thousand crowns a year. It constitutes a principal part of the diet of the Mexicans; and appears to be highly salubrious, nutritious, and agreeable to the taste.

Mexico likewise produces silk, though not in sufficient quantities to form an article of exportation: but cotton is extremely plentiful; and, on account of its lightness, is manufactured into a kind of cloth, commonly worn by the natives.

The Conquest of Mexico is one of the most memorable events in the Spanish history; but humanity inclines us to pass over a transaction pregnant with barbarism, massacre, and horrors. The present inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or are Creoles, that is, natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly engaged either in government or trade; and support nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe, except that they possess a still greater

greater proportion of superciliousness; considering themselves as entitled to every high distinction in consequence of their being natives of Europe, and regarding the other inhabitants as many degrees inferior. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, fortitude, and patience, which form the fair side of the Spanish character: naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their existence to indolence and unmanly pleasures; luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade and little convenience, their general character is nothing better than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitutional bias, their whole business consists in amour and intrigue; consequently, their ladies are not much celebrated either for chastity or domestic virtues. The Indians, who notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders are still very numerous, are become a dejected, timid, and miserable race; and the blacks, like all those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted by nature for the gross slavery they endure as mortals can possibly be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only of Mexico, but of the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the parliaments in France. In this court the viceroy of the King of Spain presides, whose trust and power are the greatest which his Catholic Majesty has in his disposal; and this is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject. But the greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration; for, as jealousy is the leading feature in Spanish politics, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years; which measure may unquestionably have a very good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with the most unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who thereby become a prey to every new governor.

The clergy are extremely numerous; and it has been computed that priests, monks, and nuns, of the several orders, constitute upwards of one fifth part of all the white inhabitants of Mexico; as well as of the other parts of Spanish America. It is impossible, indeed, to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to ecclesiastics, in any part of the world: the people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious; and with such dispositions to work upon, it is not surprizing that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

The trade of Mexico consists of three capital branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the Gulph of Mexico, or the North Sea; with the East Indies, by Acapulco, on the South Sea; and with South America by the same port. The two sea-ports of Vera Cruz and Acapulco are most advantageously situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied; and it is by means of the former that Mexico diffuses her wealth over the whole world, and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries which Europe affords, and which the indolence of the Mexicans will not permit them to acquire for themselves. At this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of fourteen large merchant ships, and three men of war as a convoy, annually arrive about the beginning of November. It's

cargo consists of every European manufacture and commodity; and there are few trading nations who have less interest in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil; and the profits of these, together with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When the goods are landed at Vera Cruz, and disposed of, the fleet takes in plate, precious stones, and other commodities, for Europe. Sometimes it is ready to sail by the end of May; and, from Vera Cruz, it proceeds directly to the Havannah, in the Island of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where it meets with the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello; and, when both are collected and provided with a proper convoy, they steer for Old Spain.

By means of the port of Acapulco, the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by one large ship as a convoy, which forms the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrives: and the cargoes of these ships (for the convoy likewise carries goods) consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the east. About the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, arrives, which is computed to carry about two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the cargoes of the galleons. Several other ships from different parts of Chili and Peru, assemble on the same occasion; and a great fair commences, which lasts thirty days, in which the commodities of every part of the world are bartered for one another. The galleon then proceeds on her voyage, loaded with silver, and such European goods as have been judged necessary.

Though this trade passes entirely through the hands of the Spaniards, and in the very centre of their dominions, their profits are comparatively small: for, as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greatest part of the cargoes of the flota, the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, possessed with the same spirit of indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to supply the principal part of the cargo of the galleon.

But, notwithstanding what has been said of the commerce of Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the centre of trade in that part of the world; for there the principal merchants reside, and of course the greatest part of the business is negociated. The East Indian goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all pass through this city; thither all the gold and silver is sent to be coined; there the king's fifth is deposited; and all those ornaments and utensils are fabricated which are annually exported to Europe.

This magnificent city is situated on a lake of the same name, in twenty degrees north latitude, and in 101 degrees 10 minutes west longitude, about a hundred and seventy miles west from the Gulph of Mexico, and a hundred and ninety north of Acapulco. It is esteemed the most regular one in the world, being a perfect square; each side extends half a league; and consequently the whole circumference is six miles. In the centre there is a large square, from whence the streets run in direct lines north, south, east, and west, crossing



sing each other at right-angles; so that the length and breadth of the whole city may be seen at the corner of every street. It has five entrances, but has neither gates, walls, nor artillery. The houses are strongly built of brick and stone, but not very high, because the climate is subject to earthquakes; and the greatest part of the town standing on a morass, it's foundations sometimes sink; and, what is still worse, from the streams which devolve from the mountains into the lake, it is liable to the most dreadful inundations: indeed, many of the houses and inhabitants have at different times been actually swept away by floods, notwithstanding every attempt to drain off the waters. The private buildings are commodious, and the public ones magnificent; some of the churches, in particular, are rich and beautiful beyond conception. The palace of the Marquis de Valle, as it is called, is one of the finest pieces of architecture either in the New or the Old World: it is erected on the very spot where the imperial palace of Montezuma once stood, and almost occupies the same extent.

It has been computed that this city contains eighty thousand inhabitants; and so propitious is the climate in which they live, that few of them are in a state of indigence, though their native indolence might naturally enough be supposed to entail it.

St. Jago de Guatemala deserves to be mentioned on account of it's misfortunes. It was formerly the capital of an audience, and one of the first cities in New Spain, but was totally destroyed by a dreadful earthquake and volcano on the 7th of June 1773. A more terrible and awful scene was hardly ever exhibited: the day preceding, a prodigious noise was heard from a volcano situated in a mountain above the city; which was succeeded in the night by a furious explosion, as if it had discharged it's whole internal contents. This mountain has two tops, from one of which issued fire, and from the other a torrent of water; which, sweeping all before them, blended both houses and inhabitants in one common ruin. The horror of this scene was aggravated by one of the most tremendous earthquakes ever felt in any part of the globe; which scarcely left behind it either a vestige of the place, or the life of an inhabitant.

CONTINENT OF SOUTH AMERICA.

SPANISH AMERICA.

C H A P. XIV.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

THIS country is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean on the north; by the same ocean and Surinam on the east; by the country of the Amazons and Peru on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain on the west. It lies between the equator and 12 degrees of north latitude, and between 60 and 82 degrees of west longitude; and extends about one thousand four hundred miles in length, and seven hundred in breadth.

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It is divided into two grand districts. That lying towards the north contains the provinces of Terra Firma Proper, or Darien; Carthagena; St. Martha; Rio de la Hacha; Venezuela; Comana; and New Andalusia, or Paria: and that lying towards the south contains only the provinces of New Granada and Popayan.

The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, unites North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the north, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little to the west of these two towns, is the proper boundary between North and South America; and there the isthmus, or neck of land, is only sixty miles broad.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are those of Panama and St. Michael's, in the South Sea: the Bay of Porto Bello, the Gulph of Darien, Sino Bay, Carthagena Bay and Harbour, the Gulph of Venezuela, the Bay of Maracaibo, the Gulph of Trieste, the Bay of Guaira, that of Cuziaco, and the Gulph of Paria or Andalusia, in the North Sea.

The most remarkable capes are, Samblas Point, Point Canoas, Cape del Agua, Swart Point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabela, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

The climate is excessively hot, particularly in the northern divisions; and Ulloa proved that the heat of the warmest day at Paris is perpetual at Carthagena. These intemperate heats raise the exhalations of the sea, which are sometimes precipitated in such rains as to threaten a general deluge. Hence great part of the country is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnate the air with vapours, that in many provinces it is highly injurious to animal life.

This country, like the greatest part of South America, is blessed with an extremely rich and fertile climate. It is impossible to view, without astonishment, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriance of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains: this, however, is only applicable to the interior country; for the coasts are generally sandy and barren, and incapable of producing any species of grain.

The most remarkable trees, with respect to magnitude, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and the balsam. The manzanillo-tree is peculiarly singular; it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. Such is the malignity of this tree, that if a person only sleeps under its shade, he finds his body excessively swelled, and racked with the severest tortures; and even the beasts, from natural instinct, always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter: this kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing specific for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are so frequent in this country.

The gold mines, which were formerly so famous in this country, are now almost exhausted; but silver, iron, and copper mines, have since been discovered, which yield the richest ore. Emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones, are also found in many places.

Among the animals peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth; or, as it is called by way of derision, the Swift Peter. It somewhat resembles the common monkey in size and shape; but exhibits a most wretched appearance, its hams and feet being entirely bare,

bare, and it's skin corrugated. It never stirs unless compelled by hunger, and is said to be several minutes in moving one of it's legs: nor can even blows accelerate it's pace; and every effort at motion is attended with such a plaintive and disagreeable cry, as at once to excite pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal; for, on the first hostile approach, it is naturally in motion, which is accompanied with such disagreeable howlings, that the pursuer flies with the utmost speed to get beyond the reach of it's discordant noise. When this creature can find no wild fruits on the ground, it searches out, with infinite pains, a tree well loaded, which it ascends with the utmost difficulty, moving, howling, and stopping, by turns: at length, having mounted, it plucks off all the fruit; and, rather than be fatigued with descending, it gathers itself into a heap, and, with a loud shriek, drops at once to the earth.

Monkeys are extremely numerous in these regions. They keep together in companies of twenty or thirty, rambling over the woods, and leaping from one tree to another; and, if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them: at least, they chatter, make a hideous noise, and throw at him whatever they can seize. They likewise suspend themselves by their tails from the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes. But when two or three people are in company, these dastardly menacers betake themselves to flight.

Besides the native Indians, who fall under the general description of Americans, there is another species, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and smaller stature than the ordinary Indians; their dispositions, too, are more soft and effeminate: but their most distinguishing characteristic is, their large, weak, blue eyes, which, unable to endure the glare of the sun, see best by moon-light; and from this circumstance they are called the Moon-eyed Indians.

The adscititious inhabitants of Terra Firma do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what has been observed, therefore, with regard to that country, it is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form many gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be considered in proportion to the share of Spanish blood which is supposed to flow in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known; next to these are the Tercerones, produced from a white and a mulatto; and from the intermarriages of these and the whites arise the Quarterones, who, though still nearer the former, are disgraced with a tint of negro blood. The produce of these last and the whites are called Quinterones, who cannot be distinguished from the real Spaniards, except by their having fairer complexions. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and, besides these, there are numerous others, scarcely ascertainable by the natives themselves.

The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Cartagena, and Porto Bello, three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America. At these places annual fairs are held for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandize of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay

of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for them, who have arrived at a surprizing dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, either devoured by sharks in the act of diving to the bottom, or dashed to pieces against the rocks.

The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico, but the office of governor is far less lucrative.

The town of St. Philip de Porto Bello is situated in 9 degrees 34½ minutes north latitude, and in 82 degrees 5 minutes west longitude, on the declivity of a mountain which surrounds the whole harbour. The houses, which are generally built of wood, amount to no more than a hundred and thirty; but they are large, spacious, and commodious. The town consists of one principal street running along the strand, with smaller ones intersecting it, proceeding from the declivity of the mountain to the shore; besides which, there are some lanes in the same direction with the principal street, where the situation will permit. The churches are handsome structures; and there are two large squares, one opposite the custom-house, and the other fronting the great church.

At the east end of the town there is a quarter which, from it's being appropriated for the habitations of slaves of both sexes, is called Guinea: this quarter, on the arrival of the galleons, is extremely crowded, great numbers of artificers from Panama always lodging in it for the sake of cheapness.

The entrance of the harbour is defended by Fort St. Philip; and on it's south side, opposite to the anchoring-place, there is a large castle named St. Jago de la Gloria; to the east of which, at a small distance, formerly stood a small fort called St. Jerome: but all these fortresses were demolished by Admiral Vernon in 1739, with only six ships under his command.

The town is under the jurisdiction of a governor, stiled lieutenant-general, who is always an officer of the army, and takes precedence of the commandants of the forts which protect the harbour.

The inclemency of the climate of Porto Bello is extremely great; the heat is excessive; and the torrents of rain which devolve from the mountains, by their suddenness and impetuosity, often threaten a fatal deluge. From these causes, as well as the consequent infatigability of the place, the number of inhabitants is very inconsiderable, consisting chiefly of negroes and mulattoes; for no white families reside at Porto Bello, except such as, from the nature of their employments, are obliged to it: notwithstanding which, the trade carried on in it is prodigious; and it may be considered as the rendezvous of the united commerce of Spain and Peru.

Panama, built on the coast of the South Sea, in 8 degrees 58 minutes north latitude, and about 30 minutes west of Porto Bello, is one of the most important places in Terra Firma. The houses are in general built of stone, and only one story high; however, from the exact arrangement of the windows, they make a very handsome appearance. Without the city walls there is an open suburb, which in extent exceeds the city itself. The decorations of the private buildings are elegant, but not expensive; and though no persons of vast fortunes

tunes reside in this city, as in some others of Spanish America, it is not destitute of wealthy inhabitants; and all of them enjoy a sufficiency.

In 1670, John Morgan, an English buccaneer, having taken Porto Bello and Maracaybo, retired to the islands, where he published his design of going against Panama, and was accordingly joined by many adventurers, who assisted him in sacking and burning the city.

In Panama there is a tribunal, or royal audience, where the governor presides; and to this office is annexed the post of Captain-general of Terra Firma. The harbour is formed in the road, under the shelter of several islands, where ships lie in safety. The inhabitants, who are parsimonious, designing, and insidious, will risque every thing when profit is in view; and the same disposition is prevalent among the fair-sex, who seldom fall in with the reigning fashions of other neighbouring provinces.

Carthagena, situated in 10 degrees 25 minutes north latitude, and in 77 degrees 12 minutes west longitude, about three hundred and twenty miles south of Port Royal in Jamaica, is built on a sandy plain, which forms a narrow passage on the south-west to a place called Tierra Bomba, as far as Boca Chica. The fortifications both of the city and suburbs are constructed in the modern stile, and lined with free-stone. The garrison, in time of peace, consists of ten companies of regulars, each company containing seventy-seven men, including officers; besides several companies of militia. The city and suburbs are well planned, the streets being straight, broad, uniform, and compleatly paved. The houses, which are principally built of stone, consist only of one story above the ground-floor: they are all furnished with balconies and lattices of wood, which is found to be more durable in this country than iron, that metal being soon corroded and destroyed by the moisture and acrimonious quality of the air; from which circumstances, and the smoaky colour of the walls, they externally make but a very mean appearance. The apartments, however, are well contrived, and excellently adapted to the climate.

Carthagena, including the suburbs, is equal to a city of the third rank in Europe; it is very populous, and adorned with many fine public structures. There is a court of inquisition established in the city; which is also the residence of a governor and bishop, both of whom possess very extensive powers.

The bay, which is one of the most famous in any part of the known world, extends two leagues and a half from north to south, and contains a sufficient quantity of water, as well as excellent anchorage, for a large fleet of ships: the shallows, however, at it's entrance, render a skilful pilot necessary. In this bay the galleons from Spain wait the arrival of the Peru fleet at Panama; and, on the first advice of it, sail directly for Porto Bello. It is also the first place in America at which the galleons are permitted to touch; and thus, by the public sales made there, it enjoys the first fruits of commerce.

The inhabitants of Carthagena may be divided into different tribes, who all derive their origin from a coalition of whites, negroes, and Indians. The Europeans are not very numerous; most of them, after acquiring competent fortunes, either returning to Spain, or removing into the interior parts of the country. Charity is a virtue in which the natives excel; and were it not exercised in the most liberal manner towards many Europeans who migrate

migrate thither for the purpose of seeking their fortunes, they would often perish through sickness or poverty.

Carthagena has suffered much by foreign hostilities. It was first invaded in 1544, soon after its establishment, by certain French plunderers, under the conduct of a Corsican pilot. In 1585, it was taken, and almost destroyed, by Sir Francis Drake. M. De Pointis attacked it in 1597 with a squadron of privateers under the protection of the French king; and though the inhabitants capitulated, they were pillaged without mercy. In 1741, it sustained a long siege from the English under Admiral Vernon; who, after possessing themselves of most of the forts in the harbour, were obliged to retire, owing to the great mortality among the troops, and the disagreement which took place between the admiral and General Wentworth, his coadjutor in the land-service.

C H A P. XV.

P E R U.

PERU is bounded by Terra Firma on the north; by the mountains, or Cordeliras des Andes, on the east; by Chili on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west: lying between the equator and 25 degrees south latitude, and between 60 and 81 west longitude; its greatest length being about one thousand eight hundred miles, and its breadth five hundred.

The province of Quito forms the northern division of this country; Lima, or Los Reyes, the middle; and Los Charcos, the southern.

The only sea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are, Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port towns of Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

The principal rivers are, the Granada or Cagdalena, Oronoquo, Amazon, and La Plata, which rise in the Andes. Besides these, several other considerable rivers derive their sources from the same mountains, and fall into the Pacific Ocean between the equator and eight degrees of south latitude. One extraordinary stream flows through this country, the waters of which are as red as blood. Some rills, in their courses, become perfect petrifications; and in several places there are fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, so much resembling pitch and tar, that the seamen use it for the same purposes.

Though Peru is wholly situated within the torrid zone, being bounded on one side by the South Sea, and on the other by the vast ridge of the Andes, it is not so annoyed with heat as the other tropical climates; and though the sky is generally cloudy, shielding the natives from the perpendicular rays of the sun, it is extremely singular that no rain ever falls. This defect, however, is sufficiently compensated by a soft genial dew, which descends nightly on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, that many places are luxuriantly fertile. The sea-coast of Peru generally consists of a dry, sterile sand; except those

those parts near the banks of rivers, which, as well as all the low lands in the interior country, are extremely fruitful.

In the vicinity of Lima there are many gold mines: silver ones also abound in various provinces; and though the old mines are daily decaying, new ones are constantly discovered. The towns likewise shift with the mines; that of Potosi, when silver was found there at the easiest expence, contained ninety thousand souls, Spaniards and Indians, the latter being as six to one. The northern part of Peru produces plenty of wine. Wool is another article of its produce; which is no less remarkable for its fineness, than on account of the animals which bear it, and which are called lamas and vicunnas. The lama, which is about the size of a stag, has a small head, bearing some resemblance both to that of a horse and a sheep; its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, that immediately inflames the part on which it falls. Its flesh is both agreeable and wholesome; and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but in being capable of travelling over the steepest mountains under a burden of sixty or seventy pounds weight: it feeds very sparingly, and is never known to drink. The vicunna, which is smaller and swifter than the lama, produces wool of a still superior quality; and in this creature are found the bezoar stones, which are regarded as antidotes against poison.

Another very considerable article of commerce is the Peruvian bark, more generally known by the name of Jesuits bark. The tree producing this invaluable drug, which is about the size of a cherry-tree, and yields a fruit resembling the almond, grows in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito: it is only the bark of the tree, however, which possesses those salutary qualities so frequently experienced in intermitting fevers, and other disorders.

Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as it is more usually called, is produced in the greatest abundance in the Vale of Arica, a district in the southern parts of Peru; from whence it is exported annually to the value of six hundred thousand crowns.

Peru is the only part of Spanish America which produces quicksilver; an article of immense value, if we consider the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is situated at a place called Guancavelica, where it is found in whitish masses resembling ill-burnt bricks. This ore is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it is condensed by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and formed into a pure liquid of a specific weight next to gold.

With respect to the number of inhabitants in Peru, it is impossible to offer any calculation with certainty, the Spaniards themselves observing the greatest taciturnity in this matter. It has, however, been imagined by some writers, that in all Spanish America there are about three millions of Spaniards and creoles of different colours: the number of Indians is unquestionably much greater; but none of them bear any proportion to the opulence, fertility, and extent of the country.

The manners of the inhabitants do not essentially differ throughout the whole Spanish dominions.

dominions. Pride and laziness are their predominant passions; and to these two sources may be ascribed the various modifications of tempers and pursuits discoverable among this people. It is, however, universally agreed, that the manners of Old Spain have greatly degenerated in its colonies: the creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering artifices, which a true-born Castilian would regard with detestation; and this probably arises in part from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they experience from others. In this city the viceroy resides, whose authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has been lately detached from it. This viceroy is as absolute as the King of Spain; but as his territories are very extensive, it is necessary that he should delegate a part of his authority to the several audiences or courts established over the kingdom. A treasury-court sits at Lima, for the purpose of receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which are appropriated to the use of the king. Accounts, however, have arrived within these few years, of some formidable insurrections in Peru, which have greatly alarmed the Spanish court, though the particulars have not as yet transpired.

The city of Lima, the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire in the New World, stands in 12 degrees 2 minutes south latitude, and in 76 degrees west longitude. Its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was selected by the celebrated Pizarro, as the most proper for a city which he expected would preserve his name. The River Rimac washes the walls; and, when not increased by torrents from the mountains, is easily fordable; but at other times it is both deep and dangerous.

This city contains many superb structures; particularly churches, which at once exhibit the riches of the country and the superstition of the natives in a very high degree. The houses, however, are in general built of very slight materials, the equality of the climate and want of rain rendering stone fabrics totally unnecessary, especially as the latter are more liable than the former to suffer from shocks of earthquakes, which are very frequent, as well as tremendous, over all this province.

Lima stands about two leagues from the sea, and extends about two miles in length, and one and a quarter in breadth. It contains about sixty thousand inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to no more than a sixth part. One well-known fact may be adduced to prove the opulence of this place. When the viceroy, the Duke de la Palada, made his public entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, in order to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, to the value of seventeen millions sterling.

Every traveller mentions, in terms of admiration, the decorations of the churches, consisting of gold, silver, and precious stones, with which the very walls are ornamented; and the only circumstances which can give the appearance of authenticity to such accounts, are the immense opulence and extensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima (many of whom are of the first nobility, so low has Spanish pride stooped in this city) may be said to traffic with every quarter of the world, both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. To this place all the valuable articles produced in the southern provinces

provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru require; the fleets from Europe and the East Indies land at the same harbour; and the various commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. Such merchandize for which there is no immediate vent the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and deposit in warehouses, being certain of a speedy demand for it, since they have a communication with almost every commercial nation.

But neither the beauty of situation, the fertility of the climate, nor the opulence of the inhabitants, can compensate for one disaster which always threatens Lima, and has sometimes actually happened, namely, the dreadful visitation of earthquakes; one of which, of the most tremendous nature, happened in 1747, when it laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, its port-town. Never was any overthrow so terrible or universal; not more than one man, out of three thousand inhabitants, being left to record this fatal calamity, and even he was rescued from the jaws of destruction by a very singular interposition of Providence. This person, who happened to be stationed on a fort which overlooked the harbour, instantaneously perceived the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion: the sea, as is usual on such occasions, after receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with violent agitations, and buried the devoted inhabitants for ever in its bosom; but the same waves which destroyed the town drove a little boat near the place where the man stood, into which he dextrously threw himself, and by that means saved his life.

Quito, the capital of a province bearing the same name, is situated in 13 minutes 33 seconds south latitude, on the eastern confines of the west Cordelera of the Andes, thirty-five leagues to the westward of the coast of the South Sea. The city is built on the acclivity of the Mountain Pichincha, which rises far above the clouds, and is surrounded by others of a moderate height, among a number of cliffs, some of which are of a considerable depth, and run through the whole city, so that many of the buildings are raised on arches; and this circumstance renders the streets extremely rugged and irregular. Near the city there are two spacious plains, which being interspersed with villas and gardens, and perpetually covered with a lovely verdure enamelled with flowers, contribute greatly to the delightfulness of the prospect. These two plains contract as they approach the city; and, at their junction, form a neck of land covered with those asperities and eminences on which part of the city of Quito is built. It may perhaps appear singular that, notwithstanding two such beautiful and extensive plains are in the vicinity, the city should be placed in such an incommodious situation; but the original founders were attached to the spot where once stood the ancient capital of the Indians, and thus sacrificed utility to whim. The principal square is spacious and well built, and adorned with some very magnificent buildings; but Quito is by no means so much celebrated as formerly, its population having decreased, and many of its houses being forsaken.

Quito, being an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru. The natives have likewise a particular taste for painting; and their productions

productions in this way, which meet with admiration even in Italy, are dispersed over all South America.

Cusco, the ancient capital of Peru, is of the same date with the empire of the Yncas, and was founded by them as their imperial residence. It stands in a hilly situation, at a distance from any plains: and on a mountain contiguous to the north part of the city are the ruins of a famous fort built by the Yncas; from whence it appears that their intention was to inclose the whole mountain with a prodigious wall, so constructed as to render its ascent absolutely impracticable to an enemy, and thereby cut off all approaches to the city. This wall was built entirely with free-stone, and amazingly strong.

Cusco, in extent, is nearly equal to Lima. The north and west sides are surrounded by the mountain of the fortress; and on the south it borders on a level through which several beautiful walks are drawn. The houses are in general built of stone, and covered with tiles of a vivid red, which give them an elegant appearance: the apartments are very spacious, and finely decorated; and the mouldings of the doors are gilt, and ornamented in a correspondent style of magnificence.

Though this city has been long on the decline, it contains many superb structures; and about forty thousand inhabitants, three parts of which are Indians, who manufacture vast quantities of baize, cotton, and leather.

CH A P. XVI.

CHILI.

THIS extensive country is bounded by Peru on the north; by La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west. It lies between 25 and 45 degrees south latitude, and between 65 and 85 west longitude; and extends about one thousand two hundred miles in length, and five hundred in breadth.

Chili is divided into two districts; that on the west side of the Andes is called Chili Proper; and that on the east side of the same mountains, Cuyo, or Cutio.

The only sea bordering on Chili is the Pacific Ocean, which forms its western boundary. But the country abounds with lakes; the principal of which are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and Paren. Besides these, there are several salt-water lakes, which preserve a communication with the sea during some part of the year. In tempestuous weather, the sea forces its way through, and replenishes them with fish; but, in the hot season, the water congeals, and leaves a crust of fine white salt, about a foot thick.

The principal bays or harbours are, Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariso, Iata, Concepcion, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's Haven, and Castro.

The soil and climate differ very little from those of Peru; but, if there is any difference, it is in favour of Chili. Indeed no part of the world is more favoured with respect to natural endowments; for not only the tropical fruits, but every species of grain, arrive at the
greatest

greatest perfection. The animal productions are the same as those of Peru; and gold is found in every river.

But, notwithstanding all these natural advantages, this country is but thinly inhabited: the original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; they lead a wandering life; and, bending their attention solely to their preservation from the Spanish yoke, seem regardless of every charm which a social plan of existence is capable of affording. The Spaniards are supposed to amount to no more than twenty thousand; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, to about sixty thousand: however, some recent insurrections of the latter have rendered the influence of the Spaniards very precarious, and greatly alarmed their court.

The foreign commerce of Chili is wholly confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico; and to the former the natives export annually corn sufficient for sixty thousand individuals. Their other exports are, hemp, hides, tallow, and salted provisions; for which they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the East Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

St. Jago, the capital of Chili, was founded by Pedro de Valdivia, in 1541, in the valley of Mopoch, in 33 degrees 40 minutes south latitude, and in 77 degrees west longitude, about twenty leagues from Valparaizo, the nearest port of the Pacific Ocean. Standing in a beautiful plain about sixty miles in extent, through which the River Mopoch devolves its stream in a meandering course, its situation is one of the most convenient and delightful that can well be imagined. The river runs so near the city, that the inhabitants are supplied with water by means of conduits through the streets; as well as the gardens, with which almost every house is adorned. The city is about two thousand yards in length from east to west, and twelve hundred in breadth, in a contrary direction. On the opposite side of the river there is a large suburb, named Chemha; and, on the east, a mountain, of a moderate height, called Santa Lucia. All the streets are of a commodious breadth, straight, and well paved, running due east and west, and crossed by others at right-angles, which run exactly north and south. Near the middle of the city there is a grand square, encompassed with piazzas, and having a very beautiful fountain in the centre. On the north side are the palace of the royal audience, in which the presidents have their apartments, the town-house, and the public prisons; on the west are the cathedral, and the bishop's palace; the south consists of shops; and the east of a range of private buildings.

Copiapo, the most celebrated port on this coast, stands in 27 degrees south latitude. The harbour is more properly called Caldera; but, from its contiguity, is commonly known by the former name. From its natural situation, this town is not improperly said to be the richest in the world, being built on a gold mine; which, however, is not wrought by the inhabitants, a still richer one having been discovered at the distance of six miles. The inhabitants of the town, which is very irregularly constructed, amount to no more than seven hundred; but there are not fewer than a thousand people employed in the neighbouring mines.

CHAP. XVII.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

THIS immense territory is bounded by the unknown country of Amazonia on the north; by Brazil on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by Peru and Chili on the west: lying between 12 and 37 degrees south latitude, and between 50 and 75 west longitude; and extending one thousand five hundred miles in length, and one thousand in breadth.

This country contains the provinces of Paraguay Proper, Parana, Guiara, Uragua, Tucuman, and Rio de la Plata; the four first lying in the eastern division, and the two last in the southern.

Besides an infinite number of smaller streams, this country is watered by three capital rivers; which, uniting near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River: these rivers annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime which produces every kind of grain committed to them in the most luxuriant fertility.

The principal bay on the coast is at the mouth of the La Plata, on which stands the city of Buenos Ayres. Cape Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only remarkable promontory. The lakes are very numerous; and one of them in particular is no less than a hundred miles long.

This vast tract is far from being entirely subjugated or planted by the Spaniards: many districts are in a great measure unknown to them, as well as to every other European nation; and the principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that called Rio de la Plata, situated towards the mouth of the river of that name. This province, as well as all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, uninterrupted by the smallest eminence for several hundred miles together. It is extremely fertile; and produces cotton in great quantities, tobacco, the valuable herb called Paraguay, and a variety of fruits. Its pastures are prodigiously rich; and in them are bred such vast herds of cattle, that the sale of their hides is said to pay for the whole purchase. Formerly a horse might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price for a cow chosen out of a herd of several hundreds was only four rials. Contrary, however, to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods; and from this circumstance, perhaps, the air is remarkably pure and serene; and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and salubrious.

In the interior parts of this country the Jesuits have established an extraordinary species of commonwealth, concerning which these crafty ecclesiastics endeavour to keep all strangers in ignorance. About the middle of the last century, those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that the want of success in their missions was wholly owing to the opprobrium which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to that averfion which their insolence always excited in the Indians wherever they were introduced. They insinuated

nuated that, had it not been for these impediments, the empire of the Gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the remotest parts of America; and that all those countries might have been brought under the allegiance of his Most Catholic Majesty, without trouble, and without expence. This remonstrance of the Jesuits met with the desired success; their sphere of action was marked out; an uncontrouled liberty was given them within these limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces were enjoined not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter this pale without licence from these fathers; who, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become sufficiently populous to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits entered on the scene of action with alacrity, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began with gathering together about fifty families habituated to a wandering life, whom they persuaded to settle, and then united them into a small township. This was the slight foundation on which they raised a superstructure which has astonished the world, and added so much to their power, at the same time that it has brought so much envy and jealousy on their society. Having made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains and masterly policy, that by degrees they mollified the minds of the most savage nations, fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government who had long bid defiance to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed on thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion; and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of these fathers.

It is impossible, in the narrow limits prescribed to this work, to trace with precision all the steps which were taken to accomplish so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone which could possibly conduce to their remaining in this subjection, or that could tend to increase their numbers to the degree requisite for a well-ordered and potent society; and it is said that, a few years since, upwards of three hundred and forty thousand families were subject to the Jesuits, living in perfect obedience, and in an awe bordering on adoration, yet effected without either violence or restraint. It is likewise affirmed, that the Indians were instructed in the military art by means of the most exact discipline, and could assemble an army of sixty thousand men well armed; that they lived in towns, were regularly clad, laboured in agriculture, exercised manufactures, and even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it.

Some writers, however, have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity; accusing them of ambition and pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who were always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes; and to suffer persons of the highest distinction within their jurisdiction to kiss the hems of their garments, as a signal honour conferred on them. The priests themselves possessed large property; all the manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought them; and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of their order seemed to evince that a zeal for religion

religion was with them only a secondary consideration: nor would these fathers permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mulattoes, or Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay.

Some years ago, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, the Jesuits refused to comply with that division; or, as they termed it, to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another like cattle, without their own consent: on which occasion their Indians had recourse to arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were defeated by the European troops with considerable slaughter. In 1767, however, this order was expelled from America by royal authority, and their late subjects put on the same footing with the other inhabitants of the country.

The Spaniards first discovered the country of Paraguay in 1515, by sailing up the River La Plata; when they founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, fifty leagues from its mouth, where it is about seven leagues broad. This town is now become one of the most considerable in South America, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brazil. To it the merchants of Europe and Peru resort; but no regular fleet sails thither, as to some other parts of America, two or three register ships at most making the only regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns, which are very valuable, consist chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides. Those who have occasionally carried on a contraband trade to this city, find it more advantageous than any other whatever; but the benefit of this illicit commerce is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose in such parts of Brazil as lie most contiguous to it. The manners of the people are very little different from those already mentioned in other parts of Spanish America, and their trade is of the same kind with that in the neighbouring provinces.

Buenos Ayres, already mentioned, stands in 34 degrees 34 minutes south latitude, and in 60 degrees 5 minutes west longitude from London. It is built on a large plain near the River La Plata, and contains at least three thousand houses, inhabited by Spaniards and different casts. Like most towns situated on rivers, it is much longer than broad; but the streets are straight, and of a proper width. One side of the principal square, which is very large, is occupied by a castle, in which the governor resides, who has constantly a garrison of one thousand troops under his command. The houses were formerly constructed of mud, thatched with straw, and very low; but they are now much improved, some being built of chalk, and others of brick, but generally covered with tiles.

CH A P. XVIII.

PATAGONIA.

THIS country, which, though claimed by the Spaniards, has never been colonized, and but little explored, is bounded by Chili on the north; by the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans on the east and west; and by the Straits of Magellan on the south; lying between 45 and 54 degrees of south latitude, and between 70 and 77 degrees of west longitude.

Patagonia

Patagonia has always been represented by geographers as a barren, inhospitable country; and in a great measure destitute of wood, or any other incentives to colonization. The Spaniards, however, in 1581, built a town, which they named Philippeville, and placed about four hundred persons in it: but when Cavendish, the celebrated English navigator, arrived there in 1587, he found only one of those settlers alive on the beach; twenty-three of them had set out for the River La Plata, and were never afterwards heard of, and all the rest had perished through famine; from which circumstance this place received the name of Port Famine.

Not only philosophers, but also voyagers, who it might naturally enough be supposed had all equal opportunities of gaining ocular demonstration, are much divided in their accounts of the natives of this country; some representing them as of a gigantic stature, and others contending that they are very little above the ordinary size.

Commodore Byron, who visited this coast in 1764, asserts, that one of these people, who appeared to be a chief, advanced towards him; that he was of a gigantic form, and seemed to realize the tales of monsters in human shapes; that the skin of a wild beast was thrown over his shoulders, as a Scotch Highlander wears his plaid; that he was painted in such a manner as to exhibit the most dreadful appearance; that there was a large white circle round one of his eyes, while a black one surrounded the other; and that the rest of his face was streaked with paint of different colours. He adds, 'I did not measure him; but, if I may judge of his height by the proportion of his stature to my own, it could not be much less than seven feet. There were among them many women who seemed to be proportionably large; and few of the men were less than the chief who had come forward to meet me.' In confirmation of this account, Captain Carteret, in a letter to Dr. Maty, published in the Philosophical Transactions, says, that he measured many of them, and found them in general from six feet to six feet five inches in height.

On the other hand, M. de Bougainville, who touched at Patagonia in 1765, and again in 1767, says—'Among those whom we saw, none were below five feet ten inches, and none above six feet, English measure: what makes them appear gigantic, are their prodigious broad shoulders, the size of their heads, and the thickness of all their limbs. They are robust and well fed, their nerves are braced, and their muscles are strong and hard: they are men left entirely to nature, and supplied with food abounding with nutritive juices, by which means they arrive at the full growth they are capable of.' The same writer likewise observes, that the inhabitants of Otaheite are taller than the Patagonians.

From such contradictory accounts it is impossible to investigate the truth, unless we suppose that in Patagonia there are different tribes, some of which are of a gigantic stature, and others of the common size, which have been respectively seen by the above-mentioned navigators.

In the latitude of 52°, the Straits of Magellan commence, having Patagonia on the north, and the island of Terra del Fuego on the south. These straits extend one hundred and ten leagues from east to west; but their breadth, in some places, falls short of one. They were first discovered by Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, who

failed through them in 1520; and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean or South Sea. He has been since considered as the first navigator who sailed round the globe; but, having lost his life in an affray with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who in 1574 passed the same straits in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these straits, discovered, in latitude $54\frac{1}{2}$, another passage, since known by the name of the Straits of Le Maire; and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anson's Voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these straits and islands, by running down to 61 or 62 degrees south latitude before they attempt to run westward towards the South Sea; but the extreme long nights, as well as the intense cold, in these latitudes, render that passage only practicable in the months of January and February, being the middle of summer in that hemisphere.

CHAP. XIX.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

BRAZIL.

THE immense territory of Brazil is bounded by the mouth of the River Amazon and the Atlantic Ocean on the north; by the same ocean on the east; by the mouth of the River Plata on the south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the unknown country of the Amazons, on the west: lying between the equator and 35 degrees south latitude, and between 35 and 60 west longitude; and extending about two thousand five hundred miles in length, and seven hundred in breadth.

On the coast there are three small islands; namely, Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine; which deserve to be mentioned, because ships bound to the South Seas usually touch at one or other of them, in order to take in provisions and fresh water.

The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brazil on the east and north-east for upwards of three thousand miles; and forms several fine bays and harbours, particularly the harbours of Panambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador on the northern shore of the River La Plata.

This country received the name of Brazil from it's abounding with that kind of wood. In it's northern parts, which lie almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and insalubrious; and subject to heavy rains and variable winds, especially in the months of March and September, when such deluges descend, attended with storms and tornadoes, that the whole country is speedily overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic

tropic of Capricorn, no part of the world enjoys a more serene and wholesome air than Brazil, being refreshed with the genial breezes of the ocean on the one hand, and by the cool air of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast, though somewhat low, is extremely pleasant, being interspersed with meadows and woods; but, on the west, far within land, there are high mountains, from whence issue many noble streams; some of which fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; while others run across the country from east to west, and disembogue themselves into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands they annually overflow, and turning a variety of sugar-mills during their courses.

The soil, which is in general extremely fertile, produces sugar of the most excellent quality and flavour; tobacco; indigo; ipecacuanha; balsam of Copaibo; and Brazil-wood, which is chiefly used in dyeing, but has some place in medicine as a stomachic and restringent.

The Brazilian animals are the same as those of Peru and Mexico; and their flesh, together with the produce of the soil, were found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, till the gold and diamond mines were discovered: but these, with the sugar plantations, now occupy so many hands, that agriculture is in a great measure neglected; and, in consequence, Brazil is obliged to depend on Europe for its farinaceous food.

The most judicious and authentic travellers present us with a very unfavourable picture of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America: they pourtray them as a people sunk in the most effeminate luxury, and at the same time practising the most desperate crimes; hypocritical and dissembling in their tempers; destitute of veracity in their conversation, as well as honesty in their dealings; and as at once indolent, proud, cruel, and vindictive. They are also penurious in their diet; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are more attached to shew, state, and attendance, than to the pleasures of free society and substantial viands; though, when they make entertainments, they are sumptuous to extravagance. When those of rank appear abroad, they are carried in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the shoulders of negroes, by the help of bamboos, each about twelve or fourteen feet long: these hammocks, which are generally blue, are adorned with fringes of the same colour, and furnished with velvet pillows; and, above their heads, a kind of testers with curtains; so that the persons carried may be concealed if they think proper, and may either lie down or sit up reclining on their pillows. When they wish to be seen, they draw their curtains aside, and salute their acquaintances in the streets; for they pride themselves in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them. On such occasions, their slaves, who are purposely furnished with strong staves, having iron forks affixed to their upper ends, and pointed below with iron, stick these implements into the ground, for the purpose of resting the bamboos on which their hammocks are suspended, till either the business or compliments of their masters are concluded. Few fashionable people of either sex appear in the streets without this parade.

The trade of Portugal is conducted on the same exclusive plan on which the several European nations traffic with their American colonies: and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places and the judgments of the European merchants may direct; but annual fleets, which sail at
 stated

stated times from Portugal, and compose three *flotas*, bound to as many ports in Brazil; namely, to Fernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All Saints, in the centre, where stands the capital, called St. Salvador; and sometimes to the city of Bahia, at which all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Europe.

The commerce of Brazil is at present very extensive, and encreases annually; which is the less surprizing, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power having settlements in America. From their colonies in Africa they annually import between forty and fifty thousand negroes; all of whom go into the amount of the cargo of the Brazil fleets for Europe. Of diamonds, there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of one hundred and thirty thousand pounds sterling yearly; which, together with the sugar, tobacco, hides, and valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may afford some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The principal commodities which the European ships carry thither are not the fiftieth part the natural produce or manufactures of Portugal: they consist of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; English silk and thread stockings, and hats; lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-beef, flour, and cheese. They receive their oil from Spain; so that their wine, with some fruit, is nearly all which Portugal supplies. At present, England is most interested in the Portuguese trade, both for home consumption and what is wanted for the use of the Brazils; however, the French are become very dangerous rivals, and the bad faith of the Portuguese government seems to favour their advances.

Brazil is certainly one of the most opulent and flourishing settlements in the world. The export of sugar, within these forty years, is much increased, though formerly it constituted the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. The tobacco is peculiarly excellent, though not raised in such quantities as in the United States of America. The northern and southern parts of Brazil abound with horned cattle, which are hunted for the sake of their hides only, no less than twenty thousand of them being annually exported to Europe.

But the rich mines of gold and diamonds, which were not discovered till after the Portuguese had been long in possession of Brazil, constitute the principal value of this settlement. In the month of May, or June, about one hundred sail of ships assemble in the Bay of All Saints, and there take in cargoes for Europe, little inferior in nature to those of the Spanish *flota* and *galleons*. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; part of it, however, is brought from Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

Americus Vesputius was the original discoverer of this country, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not colonize it till 1549, when they established themselves near the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. At first they met with some opposition from
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the court of Spain, which then considered the whole continent of South America as it's proper right. However, that business was at last compromised by treaty; when it was stipulated, that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the Rivers Amazon and La Plata, which immense territory they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese; who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of prosperity, they were overtaken by one of those blows which decides the fate of kingdoms in an instant: Don Sebastian, their king, having lost his life in an expedition against the Moors on the coast of Africa, the Portuguese dominions fell under the Spanish yoke.

The Dutch, however, soon after this event, being dissatisfied with supporting their independency by a successful defensive war, emancipated themselves from slavery; and, flushed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and soon grew rich, powerful, and formidable, by the spoils of their former tyrants. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese, and took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies; and then turning their arms on Brazil, took seven of the captainships of provinces; and would have subjugated the whole colony, had not their career been checked by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few remains of disconcerted forces.

About the year 1654, the Dutch were entirely driven out of Brazil; but their West India Company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese by sea, the latter agreed to pay the former eight tons of gold, on condition of relinquishing their interest in Brazil: which having been accepted, the Portuguese maintained peaceable possession of the whole country till about the close of the year 1762; when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, having notice of a war between Portugal and his own country, after a month's siege, took the Portuguese frontier fortress St. Sacramento, which was restored at the subsequent pacification.

St. Salvador, the capital of Brazil, is built on an elevated situation, in 12 degrees 11 minutes south latitude. It is populous, magnificent, and by far the most gay and opulent city in this part of the world. Its trade is prodigious: and as wealth often falls to the lot of vulgar minds, the generality of the natives are insolent and ill-bred; but the gentry, by their politeness and affability, in some measure compensate for the illiberality of the lower class. This city contains about twelve or fourteen thousand Portuguese, and upwards of three times that number of negroes.

The harbour is capable of receiving ships of the greatest burden; and its entrance is guarded by a strong fort, called St. Anthony's. There are also several smaller forts which command the harbour: one of them is built on a rock about half a mile from the shore; and all ships are obliged to pass close by it before they come to an anchorage, and to ride within a very small distance of it. About four hundred soldiers are constantly maintained in garrison, who are frequently drawn up and exercised in a large parade before the governor's palace.

The city consists of about two thousand houses, the greatest part of which cannot be seen from the harbour; but as many as can be viewed are intermixed with trees on a rising

ground, and afford a most delightful prospect. The private buildings are chiefly constructed of brick or stone. The churches, convents, and hospitals, are not only built in the most magnificent stile, but adorned with the most rich and expensive materials, particularly beautiful paintings. The upper town contains many splendid structures, especially the cathedral. The principal streets are spacious and well-paved; the squares are finely built; and both the city and it's vicinity are adorned with a number of delightful gardens.

C H A P. XX.

FRENCH AMERICA.

CAYENNE, OR EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

THE possessions of the French on the American continent are now very inconsiderable. Having lost Canada and Louisiana, they have no longer any footing in North America: however, they still retain a settlement on the southern continent of America, to which they have given the name of Cayenne, or Equinoctial France.

This country is situated between the equator and 5 degrees north latitude, and between 50 and 55 west longitude. It extends two hundred and forty miles along the coast of Guiana, and near three hundred miles within land; being bounded by Surinam on the north, by the Atlantic Ocean on the east, by Amazonia on the south, and by Guiana on the west.

The sea-coast is extremely low; but within land there are fine hills, well adapted for settlements. The French, however, have not as yet availed themselves of all the local advantages they possess; nevertheless, they raise all sorts of West India commodities, and these in no inconsiderable quantities. They have likewise possessed themselves of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of a river of the same name. This island is about forty-five miles in circumference. The air is extremely unwholesome; but, having several good harbours, the French have erected some settlements on it; where they raise sugar and coffee. The chief town is Caen, but it is extremely insignificant.

C H A P. XXI.

DUTCH AMERICA.

SURINAM, OR DUTCH GUIANA.

THE Portuguese having entirely dispossessed the Dutch of Brazil, and the English having driven them from North America, they were obliged to sit down contented with Surinam, a country on the continent, once in the possession of England, but then of very little value, and which was afterwards ceded to the Dutch in exchange for New York.

Dutch

Dutch Guiana, which is situated between 5 and 7 degrees of north latitude, extends one hundred miles along the coast from the mouth of the River Oronoque, north, to the River Maroni, or French Guiana, south. The climate is generally reckoned insalubrious; and a considerable part of the coast is low and covered with water: nevertheless, it is one of the most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than formerly, owing principally to the frequent wars which have subsisted between the planters and the fugitive negroes, whom they treated with the utmost barbarity; and who having increased from year to year, are at last become so numerous, that they have established a kind of colony in the woods, which are almost inaccessible, along the Rivers Surinam, Saramaca, and Copername; and are become very formidable to their former masters. Under the command of chiefs elected from among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence; and, by making frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations, they revenge themselves on their former oppressors.

The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, cotton, coffee of the most excellent quality, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dyeing drugs; and the inhabitants trade with the North American plantations, exchanging molasses for horses, cattle, and provisions.

An ingenious writer observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the copper-coloured aborigines of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different nations has likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes: these are subdivided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones; together with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse.

Guiana contains so great a number of birds of various species of the most beautiful plumage, that several persons in this colony have advantageously employed themselves, together with their slaves and dependants, in killing and preserving them for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe.

The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana; which, when touched either by the hand, a rod of iron, gold, silver, or copper, or by a stick of some particular kind of heavy American wood, communicates a shock perfectly resembling that of electricity. An immense number and variety of snakes infest this country; and these, indeed, form one of its most capital inconveniences. One of these reptiles was killed a few years since on a plantation in this province, which measured upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the middle was about three feet in circumference: it had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Surinam, is the laubba, a creature peculiar to this country; it is of an amphibious nature, about the size of a pig four months old, and covered with fine short hair. Its flesh is preferred by the European inhabitants to all other kinds of food.

Surinam, the chief town, is situated on a river of the same name, in 6 degrees 16 minutes north latitude; in which the governor resides, who is appointed by the directors of the West India Company, and in their name has a sovereign authority over the whole colony, both in civil and military affairs: in momentous concerns, however, he is obliged to assemble and consult with the Political Council, of which he is president, as well as of the Court

Court of Justice; yet he has only one voice in each, and is obliged to determine according to the majority of votes. The Political Council is composed of the governor; the commandant, who is the first counsellor; and nine other members. The Council, or Court of Justice, consists only of five counsellors, a secretary, and a bailiff, besides the governor.

The troops regularly kept in pay for the defence of the colony consist of four companies of foot, each commanded by a captain, a lieutenant, an ensign, and two serjeants; the governor himself being colonel. Exclusive of these, a militia is established, composed of eight companies of burghers.

Except the French settlement at Cayenne, and that of the Dutch at Surinam, the whole country of Guiana, extending from the equator to 8 degrees north latitude, and bounded by the River Oronoque on the north, and that of the Amazons on the south, is entirely unknown. The vast country called Amazonia, though situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brazil, and every where penetrable by means of the great river of the Amazons, has never yet been perfectly explored: some attempts, indeed, have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese, but they were always attended with so many difficulties, that few of the adventurers ever returned; and no gold, or other very valuable produce, having hitherto been discovered in the country, Europeans are but little disposed to make any new settlement there.

BOOK VIII.
ISLANDS OF AMERICA.
IN THE GULPH OF ST. LAWRENCE.

CHAP. I.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

THE island of Newfoundland was so named by Sebastian Cabot, who discovered it in the year 1497. It is of a triangular figure, and situated to the east of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and 53 and 59 of west longitude; being about three hundred and fifty miles long, and two hundred broad. It is separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the Straits of Belleisle; and from Canada by the Bay of St. Lawrence. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost perpetual storms of snow and fleet; and the beauties of a serene sky are seldom beheld in this inhospitable climate. The soil is unfertile, and the country uninviting: the severity of the cold checks the progress of vegetation during the greatest part of the year; nor does the returning summer, with its vehement heat, bring any thing valuable to maturity. However, the island is watered by several spacious rivers, and furnished with many large and excellent harbours. It abounds in wood, capable of supplying masts, yards, all sorts of lumber, for the West India trade; but at present it is chiefly valuable for its great cod-fishery on those shoals called the Banks of Newfoundland. In this branch of commerce upwards of three thousand sail of small craft are annually employed; on board of which, as well as on shore for the purpose of curing and packing the fish, upwards of ten thousand hands are employed: so that this is not only a valuable traffic to the merchant, but a source of decent subsistence to many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery for the navy.

This fishery is supposed to increase the national stock to upwards of three hundred thousand pounds annually, which is remitted to England in gold and silver for cod sold in the north, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The immense quantities of cod, both on the Great and Lesser Banks, are almost inconceivable; besides a variety of other fish, which abound along the shores of Newfoundland in almost an equal proportion. Very profitable fisheries are likewise carried on along the coasts of New Scotland, New England, and the isle of Cape Breton. From which we may infer, that where nature has stamped the soil with a great degree of sterility, she has generally compensated that defect with blessings of another kind, and perhaps in no respect inferior to those arising from the most fertile ground.

After various disputes respecting the property of this island, it was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; but the French were permitted to dry their

nets on the northern shores: and, by the treaty of 1763, they were allowed to fish in the Gulph of St. Lawrence; but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French; who stipulated neither to erect fortifications on them, nor to maintain more than fifty soldiers for the purpose of enforcing the police.

The chief towns in Newfoundland are those of Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John; but none of them are either very populous or considerable; and seldom more than a thousand families winter in the whole island.

CHAP. II.

CAPE BRETON.

THE island of Cape Breton, which is situated about fifteen leagues to the south-west of Newfoundland, is about one hundred and ten miles in length from the north-east to the south-west. The soil is very unfavourable to the progress of agriculture: but there are some excellent harbours; particularly that of Louisburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and in every part six or seven fathoms deep. Cape Breton, however, is by no means destitute of local advantages; it produces timber in great abundance, is well stocked with animals, and supplied with excellent sea and fresh-water fish.

The French began a settlement on this island in 1744, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720: the inhabitants of New England, however, bravely dispossessed them in 1745, with very little assistance from Great Britain; but, by the subsequent treaty of Aix la Chapelle, it was again ceded to the French, who spared no expence in rendering it impregnable; notwithstanding which, it was again reduced in 1758 by the British troops under General Amherst and Admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New Englandmen, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores. By the pacification of 1763, it was confirmed to Great Britain; since which period the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisburgh dismantled.

CHAP. III.

ST. JOHN'S.

THIS island, which is situated in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, and contains many fine rivers, is about sixty miles long, and thirty or forty broad; and, though lying in the vicinity of Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, with respect to the pleasantness of the climate, as well as the fertility of the soil, it is greatly superior to both.

On

On the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, in his house were found several English scalps, brought thither to market by the savages of Nova Scotia. This island was so well cultivated by the French, that it was honoured with the appellation of the Granary of Canada; which country is supplied with plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

Both St. John's and Cape Breton are at present included in the government of Newfoundland, besides some small adjacent islands.

CHAP. IV.

ATLANTIC ISLES.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which are situated at a vast distance from any continent, in 32 degrees north latitude, and in 65 degrees west longitude, received their name from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, by whom they were first discovered; and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on the adjacent rocks, in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near one thousand five hundred leagues; from the Madeiras, about one thousand two hundred; and from Carolina, three hundred.

The Bermudas are a cluster of small islands, containing collectively only about twenty thousand acres. They are extremely difficult of access; being, in the phrase of an elegant writer, 'walled with rocks.' The air, so much celebrated by the immortal Waller in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely salubrious; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are as great as can well be conceived. Though the soil is excellently adapted to the cultivation of vines, the chief employment of the inhabitants, who are supposed to be near ten thousand, consists in the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they occupy principally in the North American and West Indian commerce. These vessels are equally remarkable for their swiftness, and the durability of the cedar with which they are constructed.

St. George, the capital, is situated at the bottom of a haven in an island of the same name, and defended by several forts, mounting seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above a thousand houses, with a handsome church, and other elegant public structures.

CHAP. V.

BAHAMA ISLANDS, OR LUCAYS.

THE Bahama Islands, which are said to be five hundred in number, though some of them are merely rocks, lie to the south of Carolina, between 12 and 27 degrees of north latitude, and 73 and 81 of west longitude; and extend along the coast of Florida, as far as the Isle of Cuba. Twelve of them, however, are large and fertile, and their soil is equal to that of Carolina; but, except Providence, which is two hundred miles east of the Floridas, they are almost uninhabited, and some others, which are still larger and more fertile, have never yet been cultivated by the English.

Between the Bahamas and the continent of Florida is the Gulph of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe. These islands were the first-fruits of the discoveries of Columbus; but they were not visited by the English till the year 1667, when Captain Seyle, who was driven among them in his voyage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and, being forced on them a second time, he distinguished another by the name of Providence. The English, observing their advantageous situation for checking the French and Spaniards, attempted to colonize them in the reign of Charles II. Some unfortunate occurrences, however, prevented this settlement from turning out to any advantage; and the Isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American seas, till the English government, in 1778, employed Captain Woodes Rogers to dislodge these pirates, and establish a settlement. This object being effected, a fort was erected, and an independent company stationed on the island. Since that period the Bahamas have been slowly, but progressively, improving. In time of war, the inhabitants are considerable gainers by the number of prizes condemned there; and, at all times, the wrecks, which are very frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves, afford them but too considerable an emolument.

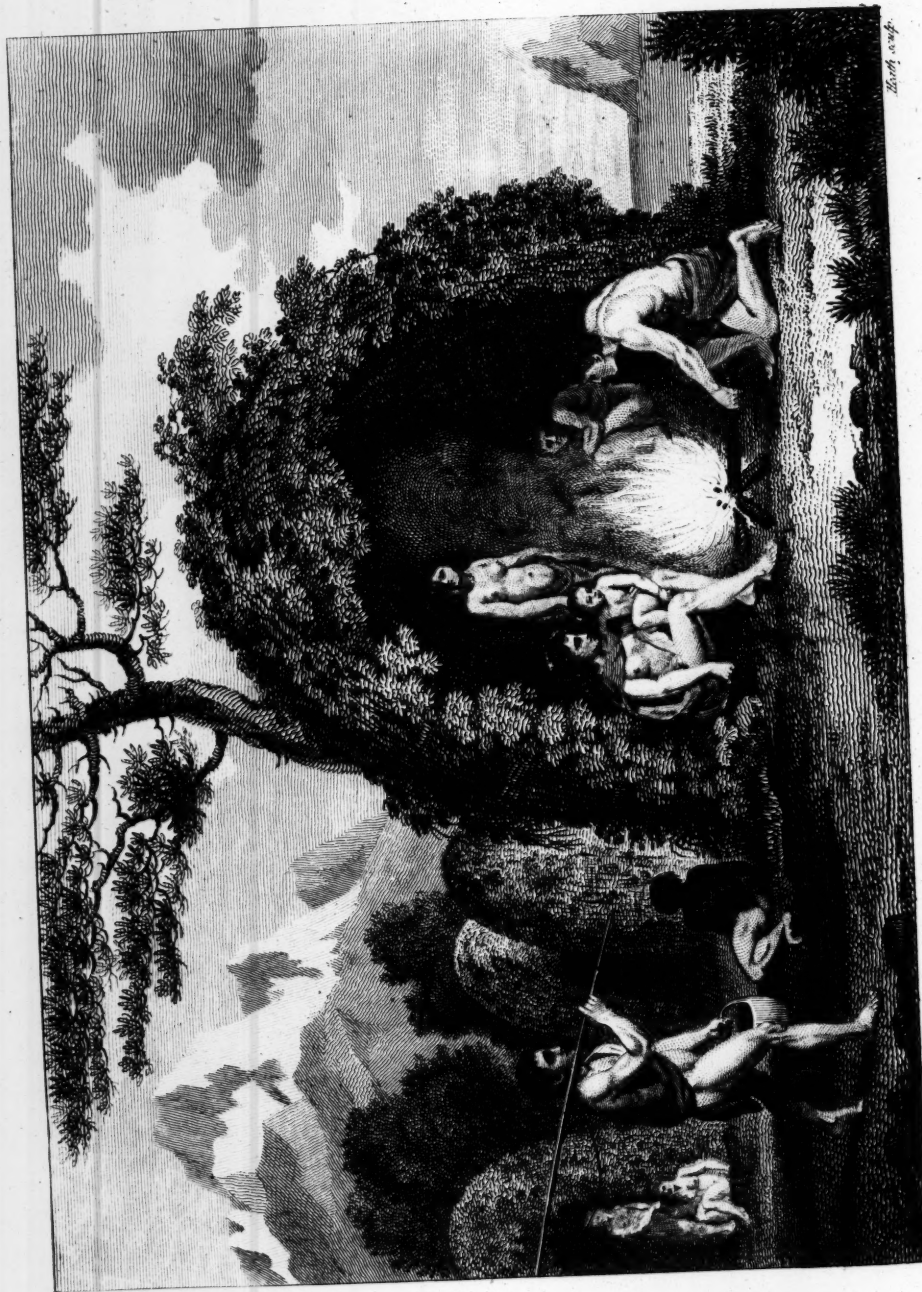
CHAP. VI.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which are situated to the north-east of the Straits of Magellan, in 51 degrees 22 minutes south latitude, and in 64 degrees 30 minutes west longitude, were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, who called them Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth; but Captain Strong, of London, who sailed through the Sound in 1689, gave it the name of Falkland Sound, which has since been communicated to the islands.

As these islands lie in the same latitude as the south of England, they might naturally enough be supposed to enjoy nearly the same climate, were it not a well-known geographical truth, that the southern hemisphere is much more inclement than the northern one.

Falkland



THE INHABITANTS OF TERRA DEL FUEGO.

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Falkland Islands, which are divided from each other only by a strait four or five miles in breadth, are both dreary and desolate spots, affording neither timber nor vegetables in any considerable quantities. The coasts, however, are frequented by innumerable herds of seals; and vast flights of wild-geese repair thither during the season of incubation, particularly penguins and albatrosses.

The importance of these islands, notwithstanding the inclemency of the air and sterility of the soil, was strongly enforced by the ingenious author of Anson's Voyage; and accordingly a settlement was made, which the Spaniards wrested from us in 1770; but, on remonstrances being made by the British minister at the court of Madrid, it was relinquished by that nation; though England seems rather to have contended for the property than any advantage it was likely to derive from such inhospitable islands.

C H A P. VII.

TERRA DEL FUEGO.

THESE islands, which lie to the south of the Straits of Magellan, were so denominated from the fire and smoke which were perceived on them by their first discoverers; occasioned by a volcano in the largest island, which sometimes emits great quantities of stones and ashes, and the flame is visible at a vast distance during the night.

These islands extend along the Magellanic coast, from east to west, about four hundred miles; and were thought to form a part of the continent, till Magellan discovered and sailed through the intervening strait.

Terra del Fuego is in general extremely mountainous and rough, and covered with almost perpetual snows; which circumstances render the climate almost destitute of animals of every kind.

The wretched inhabitants are short, meagre, and disagreeable. The women are hideous, disregarded by the men, and subjected to the most toilsome avocations. Both sexes go almost naked, having only the skins of small seals wrapped round their bodies; and they subsist principally on shell-fish.

The only domestic animal mentioned by travellers as peculiar to this country, is a kind of dog.

On the south-east side of the islands which form the Straits of Magellan, lies Staten Land, an island about seven or eight leagues in length, so extremely wild and horrid in its appearance, that in this respect it even surpasses Terra del Fuego.

C H A P. VIII.

JUAN FERNANDES.

THIS island, which lies in 83 degrees west longitude, and 33 south latitude, about three hundred miles west of Chili, is still uninhabited; but, as it possesses several good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for English cruisers to water at; there being little

danger of a discovery, unless, as has frequently been the case, the Portuguese have forwarded information from the Brazils.

The north part of the island is composed of high craggy hills, many of them inaccessible, though generally covered with trees. The soil is various throughout; being in some places luxuriantly fertile, and in others remarkably sterile. The only animals are goats, dogs, and seals; which last are by mariners, esteemed excellent food, their flesh being compared to lamb.

This island is famous for having given rise to the justly celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It appears that one Alexander Selkirk, a seaman, and a native of Scotland, was put ashore and left in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, and was discovered by Captain Woodes Rogers in 1709. When taken on board, he had through disuse so forgot his native language, that he could with difficulty be understood. He was clothed with the skins of goats, would drink nothing but water, and could not for a considerable time relish the ship's provisions. During his residence on this island, he had killed five hundred goats, which he caught by running down; and as many more he marked on their ears, and again set at liberty. Lord Anson's crew caught some of these goats thirty years afterwards, which discovered strong marks of antiquity in their venerable aspects and majestic beards. Selkirk, on his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom; and he is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, for the purpose of preparing them for the press: but that gentleman, by the help of these memoirs and a lively fancy, metamorphosed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and then returned the originals to their proprietor; by which means the real adventurer was in a great measure disregarded; while Defoe obtained no inconsiderable share of literary fame, though at the expence of honour, justice, and humanity.

Captain Cartaret, in the *Swallow*, on his voyage round the world in 1767, attempted to make this island, in order to recruit the health of his men, after a tedious passage through the Straits of Magellan; but, finding it fortified by the Spaniards, he desisted from his intention, and bore away to a small island called *Masafuero*, about twenty-two leagues distant.

The Spaniards also possess the *Gallipago Isles*, situated under the equator about four hundred miles west of Peru; and also those in the Bay of Panama, called the *King's* or *Pearl Isles*: but all these are too insignificant to merit our particular attention.

WEST INDIES.

BRITISH ISLANDS.

CHAP. IX.

JAMAICA.

THE islands to which the general appellation of the West Indies is given, lie in the form of a bow, or semicircle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the River *Oronoque*, in the main continent of South America. Some, however, call them the



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the Caribbees, from their original inhabitants, though this is a term which most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of the ships from Old Spain or the Canaries to Carthage or New Spain; while the geographical tables and maps discriminate them under the names of the Great and Little Antilles.

The climate, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce, is nearly the same throughout all the West India islands. Lying within the tropics, they are exposed to a heat which would prove intolerable, did not the trade-wind, as the rising sun gathers strength, blow on them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner as to render the noon-day heat less intense than might be expected. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to rise, which blows as if it proceeded from one central point in the islands to all quarters at one and the same time.

Jamaica, the most important island belonging to Great Britain, and perhaps the best cultivated of any in the West Indies, lies between 75 and 79 degrees of west longitude, and 17 and 18 of north latitude. From east to west it is about one hundred and forty miles long; and, about the middle, it is sixty miles broad, tapering towards each extremity somewhat in the form of an egg. Its distance from England is computed to be near four thousand five hundred miles.

Jamaica is intersected by a ridge of steep rocks, jumbled together by frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner. Though destitute of soil on their surface, they are nevertheless covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, which flourish in perpetual verdure, being nourished by frequent rains, as well as by the thick mists which continually hover over the mountains. From these rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure water, which devolve in cataracts; and, together with the astonishing height of the mountains, and the vivid verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a landscape as beautiful as singular. On each side of this chain of mountains there are lower ridges, which diminish as they recede from it, and produce coffee in great abundance. The vallies between these ridges are extremely level, and the soil is exuberantly rich.

The longest day in this island is thirteen hours, and the shortest about eleven; but the most usual divisions of time, both in Jamaica and the other West India Islands, are into wet and dry seasons. The air, in most places, is excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cooling sea-breezes, which set in every morning about ten o'clock, mitigate the heat; and on the high grounds the air is esteemed both temperate and pure. Scarce a night passes without lightning; but, when attended with thunder, it is extremely tremendous. In the months of February and March, earthquakes are apprehended; and, during those of May and October, the rains are very heavy, and of long continuance.

In the champain parts of the country several salt fountains have been discovered; and in the mountains in the vicinity of Spanish Town there is a hot-bath which possesses great medicinal virtues, particularly in relieving the dry belly-ache, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most dreadful endemial distempers of the climate.

Sugar

Sugar is the most plentiful and valuable production of Jamaica; a commodity wholly unknown to the ancient Greeks and Romans, though made in China in very early ages, from which country the Europeans received the first knowledge of it. The Portuguese originally cultivated it in America; and such success attended their endeavours, that it soon became one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. Travellers are not agreed whether the cane from which this substance is extracted is a native of America, or brought thither by the Portuguese to their colony of Brazil from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that may be, it is certain that the Portuguese at first made the greatest quantities of any European nation, and still maintain the reputation of producing the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice inclosed in the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet, in nature; and, when sucked raw, proves very nutritious and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled, and from the scum of the sugar an inferior spirit is procured. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which cover the joints, make excellent provender for cattle; and the canes themselves, after being ground, serve for firing: so that no part of this excellent plant is without its peculiar use.

It is computed that, with proper management, the rum and molasses defray the expences of the plantation; and, consequently, the sugars are clear gain. However, it must be remarked, that the expences of a West India plantation are very great, and the profits, at first view, precarious; for the chargeable articles of the windmill, with the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the purchasing and subsisting a sufficient number of slaves and cattle, will not permit even a proprietor of land to begin a considerable sugar-manufactory without a capital of several thousand pounds: add to this, the losses by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad seasons; and, even when the planter has put his sugars on ship-board, that it is entirely at his own risque. These considerations might naturally enough induce a belief that it could never be worth while to engage in this business; but, notwithstanding all these disadvantages, there is no part of the world where fortunes may be so rapidly accumulated from the produce of the earth, as in the West Indies. The returns of a few good seasons generally provide against the ill effects of the worst; and the planter is always sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce.

Jamaica produces cocoa, which was formerly cultivated to a great extent; ginger; pimento, or, as it is usually called, Jamaica pepper; machineel, the fruit of which, though beautiful to the eye, contains one of the most deadly poisons in nature; mahogany, the value of which is well known; excellent cedars; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood; the palma, which affords oil; the soap-tree, the berries of which answer all the purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive-bark, in request among tanners; the fustic and red-wood, used in dyeing; and, lately, logwood has been planted with success. The indigo-plant was also formerly much cultivated, but the cotton-tree seems to have superseded that practice.

No species of European grain will prosper in Jamaica; but maize, Guinea corn, various kinds of peas, and a variety of roots, amply repay the labour of cultivation. Citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, fourfops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly-pears, allcadas-pears,

pears, melons, pompions, gnavas, and various kinds of berries, with garden-stuffs in great plenty, abound throughout the champain part of the island; from whence also apothecaries are supplied with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds.

The cattle bred in Jamaica are but few: the beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb is tolerable; but hogs are most numerous, and their flesh is in the highest estimation. The horses, which are small, mettlesome, and hardy, are frequently sold for thirty or forty pounds a head. Sea and land turtle are plentiful, as well as that amphibious animal the alligator. All sorts of wild and tame fowl abound; and there is an astonishing variety of parrots, parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea-hens, geese, ducks, and turkeys. The humming-bird is likewise a native of this island, and many other curious songsters too numerous to be particularized.

The rivers and bays of Jamaica are well stocked with fish of the most excellent quality and flavour. The mountains breed amazing numbers of adders, and other noxious reptiles; and the fens and marshes produce the guana and gallewasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects peculiar to this island, are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats it's way into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes; nor are the white people always free from their attacks. These insects will lodge in any part of the body, but chiefly in the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and generally inclose themselves in a bag before they are felt by the sufferer.

About the beginning of the present century, it was computed that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to sixty thousand, and that of the negroes to one hundred and twenty. At present, however, population appears to be on the decline, as the number of whites does not exceed twenty-five thousand, nor that of the blacks ninety. Besides these, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a sort of colony among the Blue Mountains, independent of the whites; but with whom they make treaties, and are in some respect serviceable, particularly in returning runaway slaves.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica; a town standing on the extremity of a narrow neck of land, which towards the sea formed part of the border of an excellent harbour of it's own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, operated so much on the minds of the inhabitants, that they made this spot the site of their capital, though it did not produce a single necessary of life. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place of equal magnitude could be compared with it for wealth, commerce, and an universal depravity of manners. In the month of June of the same year, a terrible earthquake, which shook the whole island to it's very centre, totally overwhelmed this city, so as not to leave the least vestige in one particular quarter. The earth instantly opened, and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and about two thousand inhabitants. The water gushed out from the chafms in the earth, and tumbled the inhabitants on heaps; while some few had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in dock in order to be careened, was carried over the tops of sinking houses without oversetting, and afforded a safe retreat to some hundreds of people, who providentially saved their lives by getting on board. An of-

ficer, who was a spectator of this awful scene, relates that the earth opened and shut very quickly in some places; and that he saw several people sink to their middles; while others appeared with only their heads above ground, in which deplorable condition they were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres sunk with the houses and inhabitants, the place appearing for some time like a lake; and, when dried up, not a trace of a house was to be seen. In some parts mountains were split; and, in one district in particular, a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile.

This city, however, was again rebuilt; but, ten years after, it was consumed by a dreadful conflagration. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted the inhabitants to build it a third time; and, once more, in 1722, it was laid in ruins by a hurricane, perhaps the most terrible recorded in any history, ancient or modern. Such reiterated calamities seemed to mark this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants, therefore, resolved to forsake it for ever; and accordingly they built the town of Kingston, on the opposite bay, which has since become the capital of the island.

Kingston consists of upwards of a thousand houses, many of them handsomely built; and, agreeable to the taste of the inhabitants, only one story high, with porticoes, and every convenience adapted to the climate.

Not far from Kingston stands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spanish town, which, though now inferior to Jamaica, was once the capital of the island, and is still the seat of government and of the courts of justice.

On particular occasions the gentlemen of this town appear very gay, in silk coats, and other expensive articles of dress; but, at other times, they wear linen drawers, vests, and Holland caps with hats over them. Men-servants wear coarse linen frocks with buttons at their necks and hands, long trowsers of the same, and check shirts. The negroes, except those who attend gentlemen, receive once a year Osnaburghs and blankets for their cloathing, with caps or handkerchiefs for their heads. The morning habits of the ladies are loose night-gowns, carelessly wrapped round their bodies; but, before dinner, they put off this dishabille, and appear in all the advantages of a rich and becoming dress.

The common beverage of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter is sold at one shilling a bottle. But the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum-punch; which, if used frequently, or to excess, heats the blood, brings on fevers, and in a few hours hurries the patient to the grave.

Literature is almost unknown in Jamaica; though there are some gentlemen who send their children to Great Britain for the purpose of a liberal and polite education; but the generality of the inhabitants take but little care to improve their mental powers, being principally engaged either in commerce or riotous dissipation.

Humanity shudders at the contemplation of those miseries which the hapless negroes are doomed to suffer; and though the greatest care is employed in their propagation, the severity of their treatment so abridges their lives, that, instead of multiplying, many thousands are annually imported, in order to supply the places of those whom death hath emancipated from slavery. On their first arrival from the coast of Guinea, this miserable

race

race are exposed naked to sale; they are then generally very simple and innocent; but they soon learn artifice from their tyrannical masters, and to excuse their faults by the practice of the whites. They believe that every negro returns to his native country after death; and this thought so pleases and exhilarates them, that it in some measure renders their burdensome lives easy, which without this fond idea would be almost insupportable. Prepossessed with these sentiments, they regard death as a blessing; and it is truly astonishing to behold with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet the king of terrors: they are then absolutely transported at the brightening prospect of their slavery's being at an end; and that they shall quickly revisit their native shores, and again enjoy a happy intercourse with their friends and acquaintances. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow-slaves kiss him; and, wishing him a good journey, send their affectionate wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no funeral lamentations; but, with the strongest indications of joy, inter the dead body; at the same time believing that their companion is gone home, and has attained to that state of happiness which they so ardently pant after.

Jamaica was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America; and though several descents had been made on it by the English prior to the year 1656, it was not till that period that this island was reduced under the British government. Cromwell, the Protector, had fitted out a squadron, under Pen and Venables, to reduce the Island of Hispaniola; but having proved unsuccessful in this attempt, these commanders, in order to atone for their miscarriage, spontaneously made a descent on Jamaica; and having carried St. Jago, the capital, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Since that æra it has continued subject to the English; and, next to Ireland, the government of it is reckoned one of the most lucrative posts in the gift of the crown, the stated salary of the governor being two thousand five hundred pounds per annum, and the assembly commonly voting him as much more; which, with other perquisites, make it little short of ten thousand pounds a year.

CHAP. X.

BARBADOES.

BARBADOES, the most easterly of all the Caribbee islands, is situated in 59 degrees west longitude, and 13 degrees north latitude; and is about twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth.

About the year 1625, when the English first landed on this island, they found it the most savage and desolate place they had hitherto visited. It had not the smallest appearance of having ever been inhabited by human beings: it contained no kinds of beasts, either of pasture or of prey; nor any fruits, herbs, or roots, proper for the subsistence of man. But as the climate was propitious, and the soil appeared sufficiently fertile, some English gentlemen of small fortunes resolved to settle on it. The trees were so large, and of a nature so hard and inflexible, that ground sufficient to supply them with the common necessaries of life was with great difficulty cleared: however, by unremitting labour and perseverance, it at length yielded them a tolerable support; and, it having been discovered that cotton and indigo

indigo were well adapted to the soil; and that tobacco, which was then beginning to be used in England, grew pretty well; many new adventurers were induced to transport themselves into this island. To these alluring prospects of advantage was added a desire of avoiding the impending storm in England about that time; and so much did these combined causes operate on the minds of people in general, that in the course of twenty-five years after its first colonization Barbadoes contained upwards of fifty thousand whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Indian slaves: the latter, however, were acquired in a manner less honourable than slaves generally are; for all the aborigines in the neighbouring islands were seized on, and carried into slavery, without the least plausible pretext for such an infraction of the natural rights of mankind. This practice has justly rendered the Caribbees irreconcilable enemies to the British name; for neither friendship nor enmity is soon allayed in uncivilized breasts.

About the year 1650, the English began to cultivate sugar; which, answering their most sanguine wishes, soon rendered them extremely opulent: The number of slaves of consequence was augmented, and in the year 1678 it is supposed that their number amounted to one hundred thousand; which, together with about half as many whites, formed a degree of population unknown even in Holland or China, in proportion to the extent of territory they possessed. At this time Barbadoes employed four hundred sail of ships, of about one hundred and fifty tons burden one with another. The annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were upwards of three hundred and fifty thousand pounds; and the circulating cash in the island was seldom less than two hundred thousand pounds.

Such was the increase of population, wealth, and commerce, during a period of fifty years; but, since that time, the island has been greatly on the decline: which is partly to be ascribed to the rise of the French sugar colonies, and partly to our own posterior establishments in the neighbouring islands. The number of inhabitants at present does not exceed twenty thousand whites, and one hundred thousand slaves; but the commerce consists of the same articles as formerly, though they are produced in less quantities.

Bridgetown is the capital of Barbadoes, in which the governor resides, whose employment is reckoned worth five thousand pounds per annum. A college was founded and well endowed in this island by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of the place.

Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and plagues. On the 10th of October 1780, a hurricane occasioned a dreadful devastation; not a house in the whole island escaping without damage, and many lives being lost, on that melancholy occasion.

C H A P. XI.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.

THE island of St. Christopher, commonly known among mariners by the name of St. Kitt's, is situated in 62 degrees west longitude, and 17 north latitude; and is about twenty miles long, and seven broad. It received its name from the immortal Christopher

topher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards: that nation, however, abandoned it, as too insignificant to claim their attention among the unbounded territories which they possessed; and in 1626 it was settled by the French and English conjunctively, but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht.

Exclusive of cotton, ginger, and all manner of tropical fruits, St. Christopher's generally produces nearly as much sugar as Barbadoes, and sometimes more. It is computed to contain about six thousand whites, and thirty-six thousand negroes. In the month of February 1783, it was taken by the French; but it has been again restored to Britain by the late pacification.

Basseterre, the capital of the island, which was built by the French, is a pretty elegant town. The houses are constructed of brick, free-stone, and timber; and, among other stately buildings, it contains a town-house, an hospital, and a large church.

CHAP. XII.

ANTIGUA.

ANTIGUA is situated in 17 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees west longitude; and is nearly of a circular form, being about twenty miles every way.

This island is said to have been discovered by the English, and some families are supposed to have settled on it as early as the year 1636; but it does not appear that much progress was made in colonizing it before 1680, when Christopher Codrington, the deputy-governor of Barbadoes, removed thither; and, after planting a considerable part of the island, made it the seat of his government, as captain-general of all the Leeward Islands. Its dock-yard being reckoned extremely commodious and safe, and its harbour superior to every other English one in this part of the world, it is on these accounts become an establishment for the royal navy of Great Britain.

Antigua is supposed to contain about seven thousand whites, and thirty thousand slaves. St. John's, the capital, is one of the most regular towns in the West Indies, but consists of no more than three hundred houses. The harbour is large and commodious; and this town is the usual residence of the governor of the Leeward Islands.

CHAP. XIII.

NEVIS.

THIS island, which lies only three or four miles south-east of St. Christopher's, is about six leagues in circumference. The principal trade of Nevis is derived from the sugar-canes, which thrive prodigiously in this climate. The number of whites is computed at three thousand, and that of the negroes at nine thousand.

Though much shipping resorts to this island, it has no good harbour, nor any tolerable anchorage; except on the south-west, where there are several rocks and shoals, between which a ship may ride in safety in moderate weather.

Charles Town, which is the only town in this island, is far from being considerable; nor does it contain any thing curious.

CHAP. XIV.

MONTSERRAT.

THIS island, which was discovered by Columbus in 1493, received the name of Montserrat from it's supposed resemblance to a mountain of that name near Barcelona, in Spain. It lies twenty-five miles south-east of Nevis, and is about twenty miles in circumference.

No settlement was made in Montserrat till the year 1632, when Sir Thomas Warner, the first governor of St. Christopher's, planted a small colony on this island, which at first flourished exceedingly; but many rival islands having started up, it did not long retain it's original importance. At present, it is supposed to contain about four thousand whites, and five thousand negroes.

The chief produce of Montserrat is indigo, great quantities of which used to be exported to Britain. The inhabitants likewise make some sugar, but it is reckoned inferior to that of Jamaica and Barbadoes.

Montserrat, St. Christopher's, Antigua, and Nevis, are all subject to the same governor; whose title is that of Captain-general and Governor in Chief of all the Caribbee Islands from Guadaloupe to Porto Rico.

CHAP. XV.

BARBUDA.

THE Island of Barbuda, which is situated in 18 degrees north latitude, thirty-five miles north of Antigua, is about twenty miles long, and twelve broad. The soil is extremely fertile, and there is a tolerable good road for shipping; but the inhabitants, who are chiefly engaged in agriculture, and in raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles, carry on no direct trade with Europe.

The property of this island is vested in the Codrington family; and the number of it's inhabitants is computed at one thousand five hundred.

C H A P. XVI.

ANGUILA.

THIS island, which is a perfect level, is situated in 19 degrees north latitude, sixty miles north west of St. Christopher's, being about thirty miles long, and ten broad. The climate is nearly the same with that of Jamaica; but the inhabitants neglect those articles which constitute the wealth of the West India Islands in general, and attend principally to the cultivation of grain and the feeding of cattle, in the same manner as those of Barbuda.

C H A P. XVII.

DOMINICA.

THIS island, which received the name of Dominica from the circumstance of it's having been discovered by Columbus on a Sunday, is situated in 16 degrees north latitude, and 62 west longitude; it lies about an equal distance from Guadaloupe and Martinico, and is twenty-eight miles long, and thirteen broad.

The soil is shallow, and better adapted to the culture of coffee than sugar: the sides of the hills produce some of the finest trees in the West Indies; and the island, in general, is well supplied with rivulets of salubrious water.

The French long opposed the settling of the English in Dominica, because in time of war it cut off their communication between Martinico and Guadaloupe: however, by the peace of Paris in 1763, it was ceded in express terms to the English; but as yet we have derived little advantage from the concession, the island having been, till very lately, only an asylum for the natives of the other Caribbee Islands, who were expelled from their own settlements. Notwithstanding this unpromising aspect of affairs, on account of it's situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form it into a separate government, and to declare it a free port.

Dominica surrendered to the arms of France in 1778; but was again restored to Britain by the late pacification.

C H A P. XVIII.

GRANADA, AND THE GRANADINES.

GRANADA is situated in 12 degrees north latitude, and 62 west longitude, about thirty miles south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, or the Spanish Main; being nearly thirty miles long, and fifteen broad.

The

The soil of Granada is extremely well adapted to the culture of sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and there is the strongest probability that this island will soon become as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies of equal dimensions. From a fine lake on the summit of a hill nearly in the centre of the island issue a number of pure rivulets, which at once adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours surround the island; and, as they are not within the usual course of the hurricanes, some of them might be fortified to great advantage, and rendered very convenient for shipping.

St. George's Bay, though much exposed, has a fine sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious; and in its harbour, or careening-place, a hundred large vessels may be moored in perfect safety.

This island was long the seat of an obstinate war between the native Caribbees and the French; during which the few remaining Indians behaved with such fortitude and conduct as would have done honour to the most polished nation. In the war preceding the last, when Granada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so struck with the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they surrendered without opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the Granadines, was confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763. In July 1779 the French again possessed themselves of this government, but they relinquished their claim at the conclusion of the war.

The Granadines are a cluster of small islands which lie to the north of Granada, and yield nearly the same produce.

CHAP. XIX.

ST. VINCENT's.

THE island of St. Vincent is situated in 13 degrees north latitude, and in 61 west longitude, about fifty miles north-west of Barbadoes, and thirty south of St. Lucia; being about twenty-four miles long, and eighteen broad. It is extremely fertile; the soil being composed of a black mould, on a strong loam, the most proper of any for the culture of sugar. Indigo likewise thrives remarkably well in this island; but that article is now much less cultivated than formerly throughout the West Indies.

Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, or fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. The Caribbeans were treated with so much asperity and injustice after this island fell into the hands of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to possess themselves of it again in 1779; it was, however, restored to Great Britain, by the late pacification.

SPANISH

SPANISH ISLANDS.

CHAP. XX.

CUBA.

THE Island of Cuba, which is situated between 19 and 23 degrees north latitude, and 74 and 87 west longitude, one hundred miles south of Cape Florida, and seventy-five north of Jamaica, is near seven hundred miles in length; and, at a medium, about seventy in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is generally level, and liable to be flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical.

This noble and extensive island, which is blessed with a most luxuriant soil, produces all the commodities common to the West Indies in general: and particularly ginger, long-pepper, and other spices; with cassia, fistula, mastic, and aloes. It also affords tobacco and sugar; but, partly from the native indolence of the Spaniards, and partly from the want of hands, not in such quantities as might be expected. For the same reasons, this large island does not produce so many commodities for exportation as the small English one of Antigua.

The courses of the rivers are in general too short to facilitate trade: but there are several excellent harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns; particularly that of St. Jago, which is strongly situated, and well fortified; but the town itself is neither populous nor rich.

The Havannah, facing Florida, the capital of Cuba, a place of great strength and importance, containing about two thousand houses, with a great number of convents and churches, is furnished with a very spacious harbour, well defended from hostile attacks. The town, however, was taken by the courage and perseverance of the British troops in the year 1762, but restored by the subsequent pacification. Santa Cruz, a considerable town, about thirty miles east of the Havannah, has also a very commodious harbour; but such is the general inattention of the Spaniards to commercial objects, that all these local advantages are in a great measure useless.

CHAP. XXI.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

THIS island was originally possessed by the Spaniards alone, but by far the greater part of it is now in the hands of the French: however, as the former were the first settlers, and still possess a share of it, Hispaniola is generally considered as a Spanish island.

island. It lies between 17 and 21 degrees north latitude, and 67 and 74 west longitude, being almost equidistant from Cuba and Porto Rico; and is four hundred and fifty miles long, and one hundred and fifty broad.

When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, it was supposed to contain at least a million of inhabitants; but so great was the barbarity of the Spaniards, and to such an inhuman height did they carry their cruelty towards the poor natives, that in the space of fifteen years they were reduced to sixty thousand. The face of the country presents an agreeable intermixture of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the soil, which is luxuriantly fertile, produces sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle multiply so fast, that they run wild in the woods; and, as in South America, are hunted only for their hides and tallow. In the most barren parts of the rocks gold and silver were formerly discovered; but these precious metals being found in greater plenty, and with more facility, in other parts, the mines of Hispaniola are entirely neglected. The north-west parts of the island, in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already enumerated in the utmost abundance. This, indeed, is the best and most fertile part of the best and most fertile island, not only in the West Indies, but perhaps in the universe.

St. Domingo is the most ancient town in Hispaniola, and in all the new world, of European erection. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the renowned admiral of that name, in 1504, who gave it the appellation of Domingo, in honour of his father Dominic; and by this name the whole island is sometimes called, particularly by the French. The town is situated on a spacious harbour, is extensive and well built, and contains many beautiful civil and religious structures. The inhabitants, like those of the other Spanish towns, are a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Mizstees, and Negroes. The towns belonging to the French are—

Cape St. Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in; has only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town; and contains about eight thousand inhabitants.

Leogane, though inferior in size to Cape St. Francois, is a celebrated port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in that island. Petit Guaves and Port Louis are likewise pretty large towns, and carry on an extensive commerce.

The exports of the French from these ports have been calculated at one million two hundred thousand pounds a year. They likewise carry on a very lucrative contraband trade with the Spaniards, as they exchange French manufactures for Spanish dollars.

CHAP. XXII.

PORTO RICO.

THE Island of Porto Rico is situated between 64 and 67 degrees west longitude, and in 18 degrees north latitude; lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, and about one hundred miles in length, and forty in breadth. The soil is beautifully diversified with

with woods, vallies, hills, and plains; and is extremely fruitful in all the usual West India productions. It is well watered with springs and rivulets; but, in the rainy seasons, the climate is reckoned extremely infalubrious. The Spaniards were originally induced to settle on this island on account of the gold found in it; but that tempting metal now appears to be nearly exhausted.

Porto Rico, the capital, is built on a little island on the north of the main island, which forms a capacious harbour; and is united to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the Earl of Cumberland. Being the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the subjects of Spain, it is very populous and commercial.

At the east end of Porto Rico there is a cluster of very small islands, known by the name of the Virgin Islands; but they are all extremely insignificant.

C H A P. XXIII.

TRINIDAD.

THE Island of Trinidad is situated between 59 and 62 degrees west longitude, and in 10 degrees north latitude; lying between Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the Straits of Paria. It is about ninety miles long, and sixty broad; and, though unhealthful, the soil is very fruitful, producing sugar, excellent tobacco, indigo, ginger, cotton, and a variety of fruits and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595; and by the French in 1676, who plundered the inhabitants of what they thought proper.

C H A P. XXIV.

MARGARETTA.

MMARGARETTA is situated about 5 degrees to the westward of Trinidad, in 64 degrees west longitude, and 11 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. It is separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait twenty-four miles broad; and is about forty miles long, and twenty-four broad. This island abounds in pasturage, maize, and fruit; and being covered with perpetual verdure, affords a most delightful prospect; but there is a great scarcity of wood and water. An advantageous pearl-fishery was formerly carried on round the coasts, but it is now discontinued.

In these seas there are many other small islands, the property of which belongs to the Spaniards; but, being entirely uncultivated, they are unworthy of a geographer's attention.

FRENCH

FRENCH ISLANDS.

CHAP. XXV.

MARTINICO.

THIS island, which is situated between 14 and 15 degrees of north latitude, and in 61 degrees of west longitude, about forty leagues north-west of Barbadoes, is sixty miles long, and nearly thirty broad. The interior part abounds with hills, from whence devolve, on every side, a number of beautiful rivers, which adorn and enrich the island in a very high degree. The soil produces sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are common to the neighbouring islands; but sugar, as in all the other West India Islands, is reckoned the principal commodity, of which an immense quantity is annually exported.

Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in those seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified, that the French used to think themselves impregnablely secure: however, during the late war, when the British arms were universally triumphant, this island submitted to their force, though it was restored by the subsequent pacification.

It may not, perhaps, be improper to observe in this place, that though the French were among the last European nations who planted settlements in the West Indies, they made ample amends for that disadvantage by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they adopted in order to draw from them every advantage which the nature of the climate would yield, and to provide against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

Sensible that the mother-country is ultimately to reap all the benefit of their labours and acquisitions, the plantations are particularly under the care and inspection of the Council of Commerce, a board composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the crown, assisted by deputies from all the considerable trading towns and cities in France, who are elected from among the most opulent and intelligent of their traders, and who receive handsome allowances for their attendance at Paris from the funds of the respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose expedients for redressing every grievance in trade, for raising the branches which are fallen, for extending new ones, and, in short, for improving and promoting whatever may prove beneficial to the general interests of the country. When the utility of any regulation becomes apparent, it is proposed to the royal council; and an edict to enforce it is immediately issued, which is executed with punctuality.

The government of the several French colonies is vested in a governor, intendant, and royal council. The governor possesses a great deal of power; which, however, on the side of the crown, is checked by the intendant; and, on the side of the people, by the royal council,

council, whose business it is to see that the people are not oppressed by the one, nor defrauded by the other. These, again, are all checked by the vigilant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the severest penalties, to interrogate all captains of ships coming from the colonies concerning the reception they met with, in what manner justice was administered, what charges they were subjected to, and of what kinds. In short, every attention is paid to the prosperity, the happiness, and the peace of individuals; and even the poor negroes have such regulations established in their favour, as considerably softens the severity of their fate, and reflects honour on the humanity of the French government.

CHAP. XXVI.

GUADALOUPE.

THIS island was so called by Columbus, from a fancied resemblance of its mountains to those of the same name in Spain. It is situated in 16 degrees north latitude, and 62 west longitude, about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua; and is computed to measure forty-five miles in length, and thirty-eight in breadth. An arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships dare venture, divides it into two parts. The soil, which is equally fertile with that of Martinico, produces sugar, cotton, indigo, and ginger. Indeed, this island is at present in a very flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar are by no means inconsiderable. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who then failed in the attempt; however, in 1759, it was invested with success, but again relinquished on the termination of the war.

CHAP. XXVII.

ST. LUCIA.

THE island of St. Lucia, which is situated in 14 degrees north latitude, and in 61 west longitude, eighty miles north-west of Barbadoes, is about twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It received its name from the circumstances of its having been discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin-martyr St. Lucia. The English first occupied it in 1637; but having suffered various embarrassments and attacks from the natives and French, it was at length stipulated between the courts of France and England, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But, when the French began to settle these islands, agreeable to the treaty of peace concluded in 1763, St. Lucia was ceded to them, and the other two to England.

This island is in many places extremely fruitful. It produces excellent timber; contains

many fine rivers and excellent harbours; and, under certain restrictions, is now declared a free port. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored to France by the recent treaty of peace.

C H A P. XXVIII.

TOBAGO.

THE Island of Tobago is situated in 11 degrees north latitude, one hundred and twenty miles south of Barbadoes, nearly equidistant from the Spanish Main; and is about thirty-two miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate is more temperate than might naturally be expected in such a latitude; and it is said to lie out of the usual tract of those hurricanes which sometimes prove fatal, not only to the property, but also to the persons, of the inhabitants of the other West India Islands. The soil is capable of producing every valuable article of West India commerce; and, if we may credit the Dutch, cinnamon, nutmegs, and gum copal, might also be cultivated with success. It is well watered with a great number of springs; and its bays and creeks are so situated as to facilitate the purposes of navigation in a very high degree.

The value and importance of this island appear from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by the principal European powers, in support of their respective claims: it seems, however, to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their rights against England and France with almost unexampled perseverance. By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, it was declared neutral; but, by the pacification in 1763, it was ceded to Great Britain. In June 1781, it was taken by the French; and the unfortunate issue of the war on the part of Great Britain confirmed it in their possession.

C H A P. XXIX.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

THIS island, which is situated in 18 degrees north latitude, and in 62 degrees 30 minutes west longitude, is reckoned about fifteen miles in circumference. It produces tobacco, cassava, and a variety of fruits and trees; but being environed by rocks, its approach is thereby rendered dangerous for ships of any considerable burden. However, it contains one very good harbour, and this circumstance enables the French to annoy the English trade greatly in time of war.

This island has repeatedly submitted to the British arms; and has as often been delivered up to the French, who originally colonized it in 1648.

C H A P. XXX.

MARIGALANTE.

COLUMBUS discovered this island in 1493, and gave it the name of his own ship, which it has ever since retained. It is situated in 61 degrees west longitude, and in 15 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and is about sixteen miles long, and four broad. The soil is not very fertile; and, at the time of its last reduction by the British arms, it produced no more than a thousand hogheads of sugar annually.

The French began to send colonies thither about the year 1647; and, after a contest of long duration, obtained possession of it. It was afterwards twice plundered by the Dutch, and has several times submitted to the British, but was always restored again to France as an object of small importance.

C H A P. XXXI.

DESEADA.

THIS island received the name of Deseada from Columbus, which signifies the Desirable Island, because it was the first of the Caribbees discovered by that navigator in his second voyage. It is situated in 16 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, and in 61 degrees 20 minutes west longitude, about twenty miles to the north-west of Guadaloupe; and is about sixteen miles in length, and two in breadth. Some part of this island is very fertile; and the soil is proper for the cultivation of sugar and cotton, of which last article it produces the best in any of the French islands. In time of war, Deseada is of some consequence, on account of the shelter it is capable of affording to privateers; and, for that reason, was invested and taken by the English during the war which preceded the last, but was again restored to France in 1763.

C H A P. XXXII.

DUTCH ISLANDS.

ST. EUSTATIUS.

THIS island, which is situated in 17 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and in 63 degrees 10 minutes west longitude, three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, is only a kind of mountain rising out of the sea in a pyramidal form, about twenty-nine miles in circumference: but, though small, and possessing so few local advantages, the industry of the Dutch

Dutch has rendered it a place of the utmost importance to them; and is said to contain five thousand whites, and fifteen thousand negroes. The sides of the mountain are laid out in very pleasant settlements; but there are neither springs nor rivers throughout the whole island. The inhabitants, however, raise considerable quantities of sugar and tobacco; and being pretty deeply engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, they have derived no inconsiderable advantage from it; nor less from their constant neutrality. But, when Great Britain commenced hostilities against the Dutch, this island being incapable of making any defence, surrendered at discretion to Admiral Rodney, on the 3d of February 1781; on which occasion the private property of the inhabitants was confiscated with a degree of rigour and rapacity which has seldom stigmatized the character of the English; no other reason having been assigned for such a procedure, than that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the revolted colonies with naval and other stores. But, by some inexplicable mystery, on the 27th of November in the same year, this island was retaken by the French, under the command of the Marquis de Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates, and some small craft, on board of which were about three hundred men.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martin's, situated in the vicinity of St. Eustatius, hardly deserve to be mentioned; they both fell under the dominion of the English at the same time with St. Eustatius, and were retaken by the French when they recovered the last of these islands for their allies the Dutch.

CHAP. XXXIII.

CURASSOU.

THE Island of Curassou, which is situated in 12 degrees north latitude, and about ten leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is thirty miles long, and ten broad. Both in Europe and America, it would seem as if the Dutch were destined by Providence to exercise their ingenuity and patience on the most unpropitious soil, and to combat the defects of nature; for this island is not only barren, and destitute of water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America: the Dutch, however, have in some measure remedied that inconvenience; and have built on this harbour one of the largest (and by far the most elegant) towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and splendid; the private houses are commodious; and the magazines are capacious, convenient, and well stocked.

Notwithstanding the natural sterility of the island, the industry of the Dutch has rendered it productive of a considerable quantity both of sugar and tobacco; and it is likewise furnished with extensive salt-works, for the produce of which there is a rapid sale among the English islands and the continental colonies. But, what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch, is the valuable contraband trade carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, as well as the harbour being the general rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The

The warehouses of Curassou, which are numerous, are constantly stocked with the commodities of Europe and the East Indies; for which the Spaniards on the continent always pay in gold and silver coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, Jesuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable articles, which leave an immense balance in favour of the Dutch. Indeed, the trade of Curassou, even in time of peace, is said to bring in annually no less than five hundred thousand pounds clear of all deductions; but in time of war the profits are still greater, for this island then becomes the common emporium of the West Indies. It affords a retreat to ships of all nations; and at the same time supplies each nation, in its turn, with arms and ammunition against the other; the Dutch considering the different contending parties only as so many customers, with whose private affairs they have no concern. The intercourse with the Spaniards being at such times interrupted, their colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be properly supplied either with slaves or goods; and the French likewise resort thither, in order to purchase provisions, and other articles necessary for the trade of their West India colonies: so that, both in peace and war, the commerce of Curassou is in a very flourishing condition.

The commerce of all the Dutch American settlements was originally transacted by the West India Company exclusively; but, at present, such ships as go on that trade pay two and a half per cent. for permission: still, however, the Company reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and their American settlements.

The Dutch likewise possess the small islands of Bonaire and Aruba; which, though they are but inconsiderable in themselves, and can only be regarded as appendages to Curassou, are extremely convenient in raising cattle and other provisions.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

DANISH ISLANDS.

ST. THOMAS.

ST. Thomas, the principal island subject to the Danes in the West Indies, is situated in 64 degrees 20 minutes west longitude, and in 18 degrees 30 minutes north latitude; being about fifteen miles in circumference: Its harbour is safe and commodious, and has two mounds, which appear as if raised by nature for the purpose of mounting batteries. Almost in its centre there is a small fort, without either ditch or outworks; and, about sixty paces to the west, the town commences, consisting principally of one long street, at the end of which is the Danish Factory, a large convenient building for the stowage of merchandize and the reception of negroes. On the right side of this factory stands the Brandenburg Quarter, which consists of two short streets, chiefly inhabited by French refugees from Europe and the islands. The houses are chiefly built of brick, tiled after the Dutch manner, and only one story high.

The island of St. Thomas produces oranges, citrons, lemons, guavas, bahamas, mandiaca, millet, and various other fruits: it likewise yields sugar-canes and tobacco; and is excellently adapted for pasturage. So much, indeed, has it lately improved, that it now produces annually upwards of three thousand hogheads of sugar, at one thousand pounds each; as well as other West Indian commodities, in as great plenty as can reasonably be expected from it's narrow limits.

CHAP. XXXV.

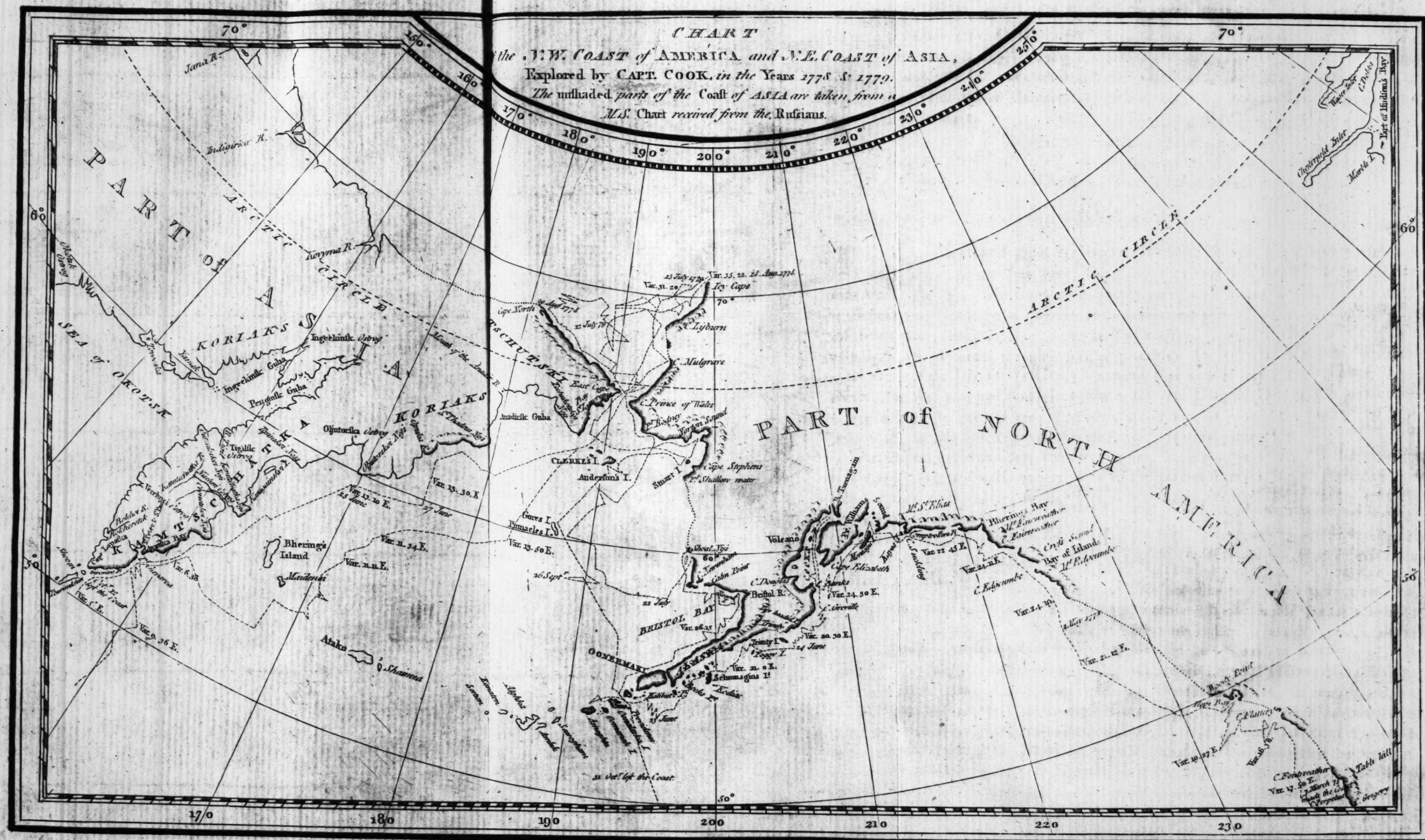
ST. CROIX.

THIS island is situated about five leagues east of St. Thomas, in 18 degrees north latitude, and in 65 west longitude; being about ten leagues in length, and between two and three in breadth. The climate is extremely unhealthy; but as this insalubrity probably arises from the thickness of it's woods, and a consequent obstruction of air, when the soil is properly cleared, that baneful effect may possibly cease. It's productions are nearly the same with those of St. Thomas, though in smaller quantities. Indeed, while these islands remained in the hands of the Danish West India Company, they were of very little consequence to the Danes; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late King of Denmark, bought up the Company's stock, and laid open the trade; and, since that period, the good effects of his prudent regulations have every day become more and more perceptible.

With respect to Santa Cruz, from having been but a few years since a perfect desert, it is now beginning to flourish very rapidly; several persons from the English plantations, and some of them very wealthy, having gone to settle there, in consequence of the great encouragement held out to them.

In time of war, privateers bring their prizes to these islands; and a great number of vessels trade from thence along the Spanish Main, and return with valuable merchandize, and money in specie and bars.

APPENDIX.



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A P P E N D I X.

HAVING finished our descriptions of the continents of Asia, Africa, Europe, and America, together with that of the islands belonging to each, it only remains that we should notice the discoveries of the Russians, and those of our British navigators, in the Pacific Ocean, which at the commencement of our work were either imperfectly described, or wholly unknown.

The Pacific Ocean, or Great South Sea, in which the late Captain Cook made such eminent discoveries, is of a most amazing extent, being upwards of ten thousand miles in breadth, and washing the coasts of Peru and Chili on the east, and those of Japan, China, and Tartary, on the west. The limits of this sea towards each pole long remained an impenetrable secret to mankind: a vast continent was supposed to exist in the southern regions, and to spread itself up to the pole; while, to the northward, the continents of Asia and America were conjectured to unite somewhat to the south of the arctic circle, and to separate this vast body of water from the Northern or Frozen Sea. To demonstrate the fallacy of both these conclusions was reserved to the persevering genius of Captain Cook; to whom, under the auspices of his present Majesty, the world is indebted for the important discovery that a southern continent does not exist: and, from the papers of the same celebrated navigator, it has received the fullest and most satisfactory information concerning the extreme parts of America and Asia; namely, that they are not united, as had been generally supposed, but that Nature seems to have placed an insuperable barrier of ice against the progress of adventurers to a higher latitude than 71 through the intervening straits.

Captain Cook, during his last voyage, having made some fresh discoveries in the South Pacific Ocean, though of less importance than the preceding, fell in with a group of islands, to which he gave the name of the Sandwich Islands, between 18 degrees 54 minutes and 22 degrees 15 minutes north latitude. Still proceeding on his voyage, he discovered King George's Sound, situated on the north-west coast of America, in 49 degrees 36 minutes north, and in 233 degrees 28 minutes east longitude. The land appeared high, broken, and rugged; and, in some places, covered with wood to the very top. The inhabitants were below the middle size, and their complexions approached to a copper-colour. In 59 degrees 54 minutes north latitude, he discovered Sandwich Sound; and, continuing to trace the American coast, entered the strait which separates it from the continent of Asia. Here both the hemispheres presented to the view a naked and flat country without any shelter, and a shallow sea dividing them. Having passed this strait, both continents gradually diverged from each other. In 70 degrees 54 minutes north latitude, and 194 degrees 55 minutes east longitude, he perceived himself, on the 20th of August 1778, surrounded with ice; and, after having laboured in vain to proceed for some time, found a passage impracticable at that advanced season of the year, and therefore deemed it expedient

to

to return, and winter in some more propitious climate; from which, however, he might be ready to prosecute his discoveries early the next season. But this illustrious navigator was unfortunately killed in an affray with the natives of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich islands, before the return of the period fixed on for attempting another voyage; and though Captain Clerke, on whom the command devolved, made every effort in his power during the succeeding summer, he was equally unsuccessful, and found it impossible to penetrate farther than his predecessor had done. Thus this voyage afforded sufficient evidence that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and likewise ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America.

As the voyages themselves, which were ably completed by the late ingenious and lamented Captain King, the coadjutor and friend of Captain Cook, are now universally read, and translated into every language of Europe, a long detail of nautical adventures will hardly be expected in this work. We shall therefore only give a brief description of the Sandwich Islands, the most important addition made to the known terraqueous globe, in Captain Cook's last voyage; and conclude with a view of the Northern Archipelago, belonging to Russia.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

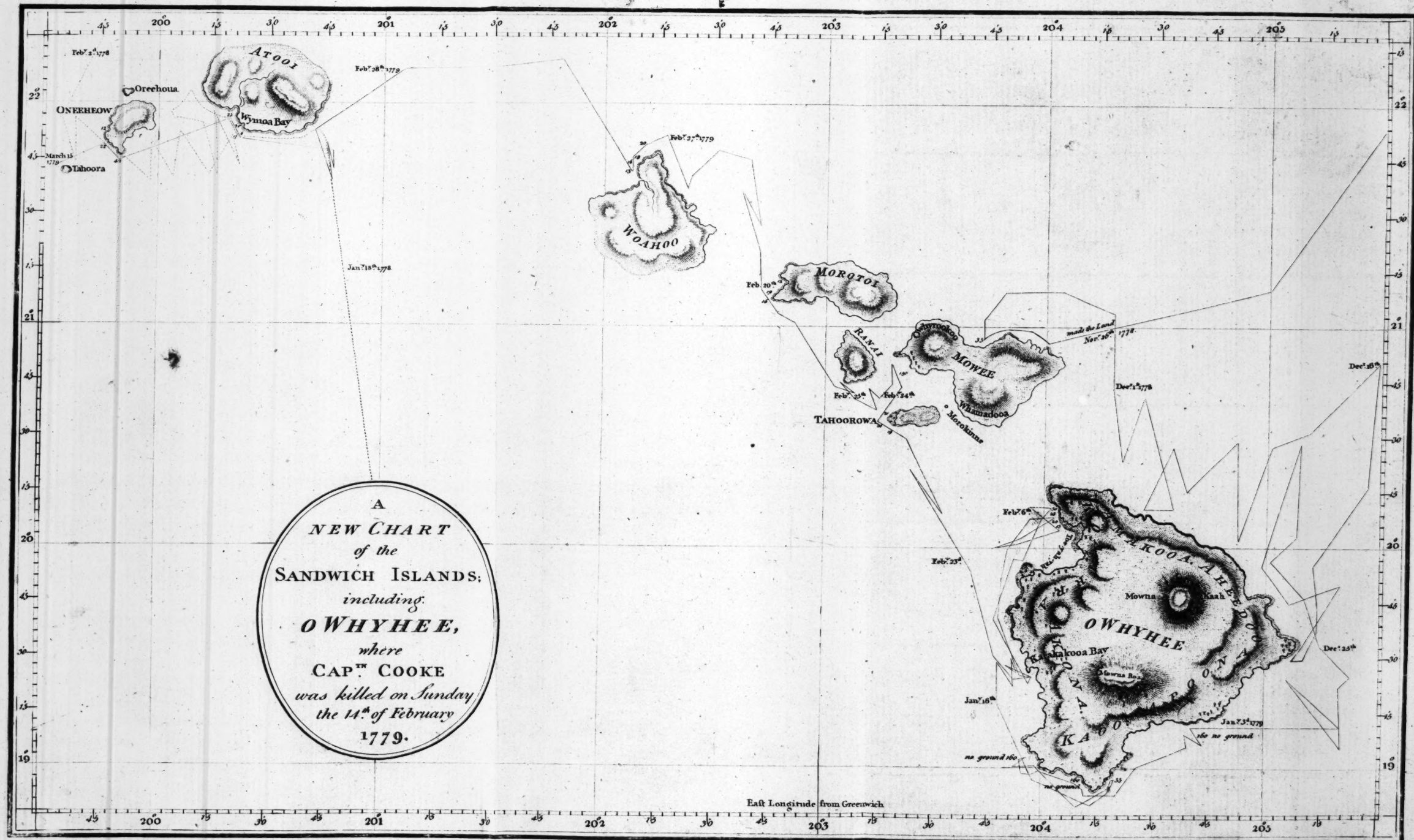
THIS group consists of eleven islands, extending from 18 degrees 54 minutes to 22 degrees 15 minutes north latitude, and from 199 degrees 36 minutes to 205 degrees 6 minutes east longitude. They are called by the natives O'why'hee; Mowee; Ranai, or Oranai; Morotinee, or Morokinnee; Kahowrowee, or Takoorowa; Morotoi, or Morokoi; Woahoo, or Oahoo; Atooi, Atowi, or Towi; Neecheehow, or Onecheow; Oreehona, or Reehona; and Tahoorā. Besides these islands, the natives mention another, called MODOOPAPAPA, or KOMODOOPAPAPA, lying to the south-west of Tahoorā, which they describe as low and sandy, and visited only for the purpose of catching turtle or sea-fowl; but this was never seen by our British navigators.

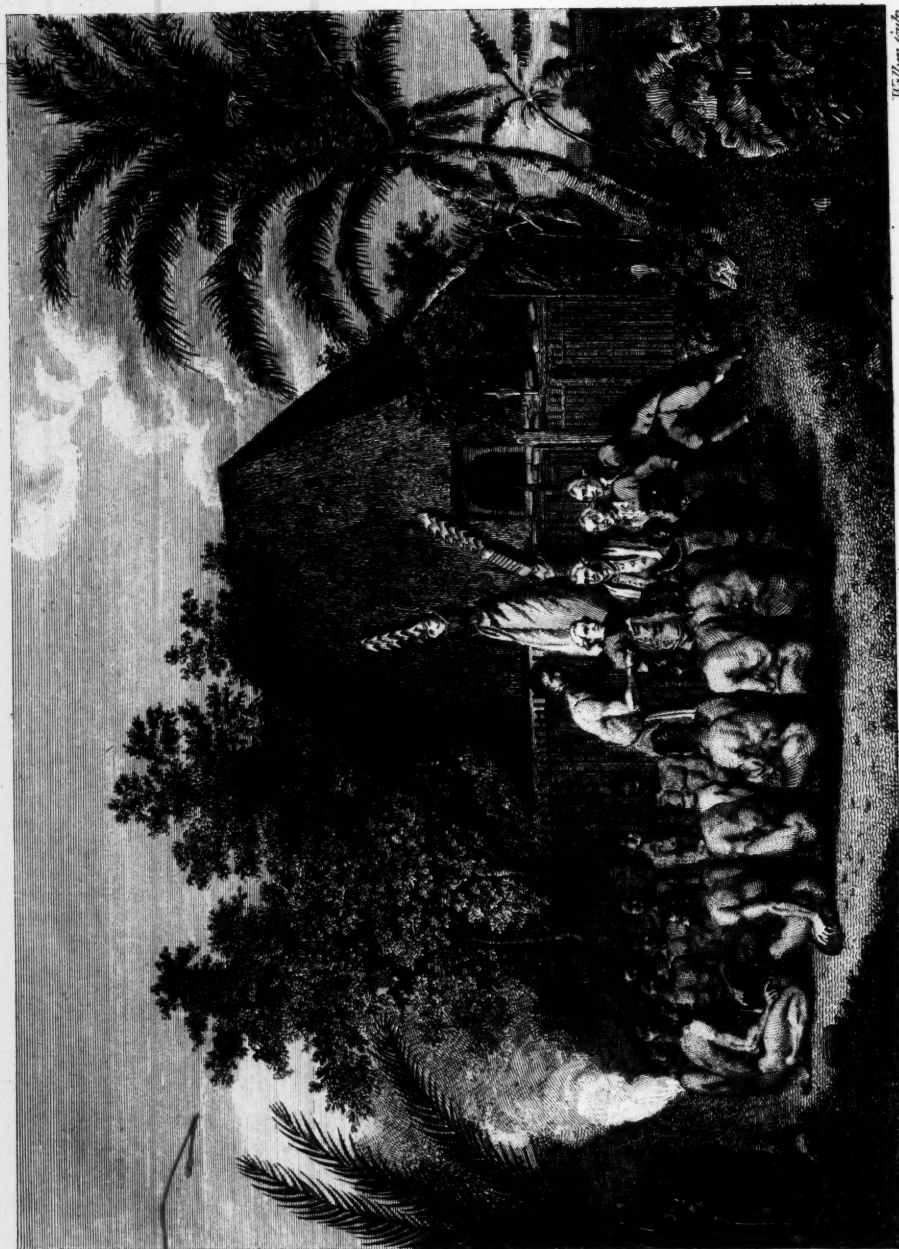
O'why'hee, the most eastern, and by far the largest of the group, is of a triangular shape, and nearly equilateral. Its greatest length is twenty-eight leagues and a half, and its breadth twenty-four leagues; being about two hundred and fifty-five geographical, or two hundred and ninety-three English miles in circumference.

Part of this island is very mountainous, and consequently barren. The mountain of Kaah, which rises in three peaks, is covered with everlasting snow, and may be plainly perceived at the distance of forty leagues. But some districts are sufficiently fertile, well cultivated, and populous. The principal vegetable productions of O'why'hee are bread-fruit trees, cloth-trees, sugar canes, the tarrow or eddy-root, and the sweet potatoe; and the only quadruped proper for food on any of these islands, is a small species of hog. The coasts, however, afford plenty of fish and sea-fowl; and the natives seem to enjoy a plenitude of such provisions as simple nature requires.

This island will ever be memorable in history for having been the scene of the death of Captain Cook, who was killed in Karakakooa Bay, where his ships lay at anchor.

Mowee,





W. B. del.

Walker sculp.

AN OFFERING BEFORE CAPT. COOK, IN THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Published as the Act directs, by Harrison & C^o September 1. 1784.

Mowee, the next island in magnitude, and the nearest to O'why'hee, is only about eight leagues distant, and appears to measure nearly one hundred and forty geographical miles in circumference. It is divided by a low isthmus into two circular peninsulas, on each of which there are mountains of prodigious height; but, where the country is level, the soil presents an appearance of verdure and fertility. The coasts afford several good anchoring-places; and the productions, both animal and vegetable, are pretty much the same as in O'why'hee.

Tahoorowa is a small island lying off the south-west part of Mowee, from which it is only three leagues distant. It is destitute of wood, and the soil appears to be sandy and sterile. Between Tahoorowa and Mowee lies the little island of Morrothinnee, which is barren and uninhabited.

Morotoi lies to the north-west of Mowee, at the distance of two leagues and a half. The south-west coast is very low; but the land rises backwards to a considerable height, and seems to be totally destitute of wood. Its principal produce consists of yams.

Ranai, which is about three leagues distant both from Mowee and Morotoi, is situated to the south-west of the passage between those two islands. The country to the south is high and craggy; but in the other quarters it has a more favourable aspect, and appears to be well inhabited. It is said to produce some plantains and bread-fruit trees; but it chiefly abounds in roots, such as yams, sweet potatoes, and taro.

Woahoo is situated to the north-west of Morotoi, at the distance of seven leagues. It seems to be one of the most fertile and delightful islands of the whole group; and nothing can exceed the verdure of the hills, the variety of the woods and lawns, and the rich cultivated vallies, which the whole face of the country displays.

Atooi lies to the north-west of Woahoo, at the distance of about twenty-five leagues. The face of the country, towards the north-east and north-west, is broken and rugged; but, towards the south, it is more champain, the hills rising with a gentle slope from the shore, and, at some distance backward, covered with wood. Its natural productions are the same with those of the adjacent islands; but the inhabitants far surpass all the neighbouring islanders in their agricultural improvements.

Oneeheow lies five leagues to the westward of Atooi. The eastern coast is high, and rises abruptly from the sea; but the rest of the island consists of low ground, except a round promontory on the south-east extremity. It produces abundance of yams, and of the sweet root called tee.

Oreehoua and Tahoorua are two small islands in the vicinity of Oneeheow. The former is a single eminence, united by a reef of coral rocks to the northern extremity of Oneeheow; and the latter, which lies to the south-east, is uninhabited.

The climate of the Sandwich Islands differs very little from that of the West India Islands, which lie in the same latitude; though the variation appears to be in favour of the former. They seem exempted from those dreadful hurricanes so often experienced in the West Indies; the rains also are more moderate, and the breezes more refreshing.

The quadrupeds in these, and indeed in all the other Pacific Isles, are confined to three sorts; namely, dogs, hogs, and rats. The dogs are about the size of common turn spits;

with short crooked legs, long backs, and pricked ears; they appear to be exceedingly sluggish in their natures, and neither to give proofs of sagacity, fidelity, nor attachment. The hogs are extremely numerous, and constitute excellent food. The birds are beautiful to a very high degree, and well deserve the attention of the naturalist. And the fish on the coasts are various, as well as pleasant to the taste.

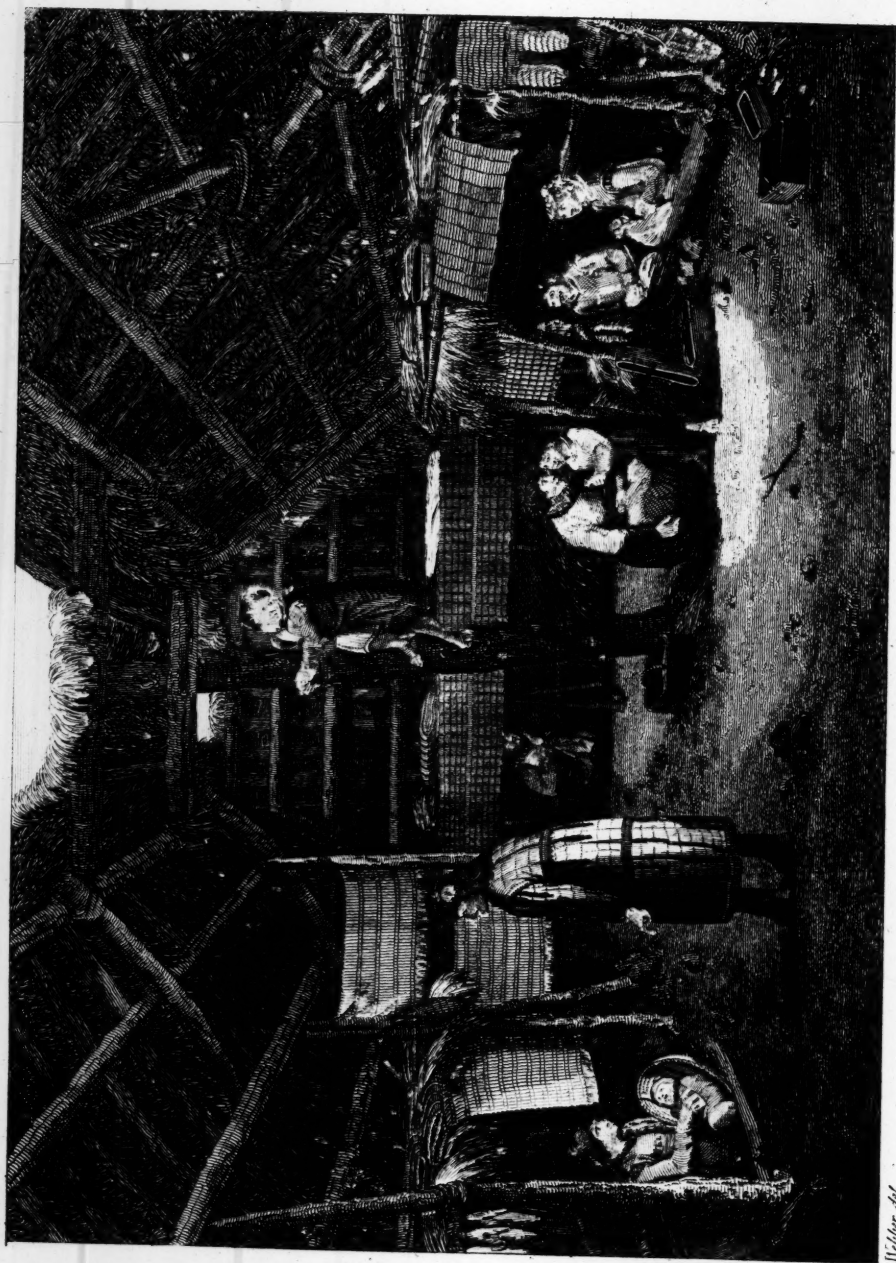
The inhabitants of the Sandwich Isles, and those numerous islanders which possess all the known lands from 47 degrees south to 20 north latitude, and from 184 to 260 east longitude, unquestionably derive their origin from one and the same source. However extraordinary this assertion may appear, it is founded on the most infallible evidences; namely, a striking similarity in their manners and customs; a general resemblance in their persons; and, above all, the absolute identity of their language.

From what continent they originally emigrated, and by what steps they were disseminated through such an amazing space, are enquiries not easily resolved. They certainly bear strong marks of affinity to some of the Indian tribes which inhabit the Ladrões and Caroline Islands; and the same affinity may again be traced among the Battas and the Malays: yet none of these islanders had the least notion of any other nation besides themselves, nor any tradition of their origin but what is perfectly fabulous; and, consequently, their emigrations must have commenced at some early and unknown period, of which they cannot retain the smallest traces; nor can the history of the world supply us with any satisfactory information on this perplexing subject.

The natives of the Sandwich Isles are in general above the middle size, well made, vigorous, and active; and, though their complexions are dark, their features are generally marked with a certain sweetness and sensibility which renders them very engaging. Nearly the same form of government prevails among them as has been already noticed with respect to the inhabitants of Otaheite: they are hospitable and unreserved; and though their natural capacity appears to be adequate to the circumstances of their situation and the advantages they enjoy, they have very little notion of civilization, and are only guided by inbred maxims of superstition and a natural beneficence of heart. It has been surmised that the inhuman practice of destroying and feeding on their enemies is allowed among them; but Captain King, who, from a sacred regard to truth as well as to the honour of human nature, made the most minute enquiries, seems to deny the fact.

The men suffer their beards to grow; and have various modes of dressing their hair, which they daub with a sort of grey clay mixed with pulverized shells. Both sexes tattoo their bodies, and particularly their faces; but the women, who are most curious in this absurd practice, tattoo the tips of their tongues also, though for what purpose cannot be determined. Their dress generally consists of a piece of thick cloth, called the maro, about ten or twelve inches broad, which they pass between the legs, and tie round the waist. But there are a variety of ornaments appropriated to the different classes; among which, the feathered dresses appear to be the most valuable as well as the most honourable. They have a great number of religious rites, and seem much addicted to superstition. Their exercises are manly, and of the athletic kind; and their vocal music,

with



The INSIDE of a HOUSE, in OONAI, ASHIKA.

Published as the Art directs, by Harrison & Co. Oct. 1, 1841.

with which they frequently amuse themselves, has a very pleasing effect; but the same commendation is by no means due to their instrumental efforts in the science of melody.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THE first project for making discoveries in the tempestuous sea which separates Kamtschatka from America, was conceived and planned by Peter I. With this view voyages were accordingly undertaken at the expence of the crown: but, as soon as it was known that the islands in that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants ardently engaged in similar expeditions; and in the course of ten years more important discoveries were made by those individuals, at their own private cost, than had previously been achieved by all the efforts of royalty. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the present Empress of Russia; and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, as well as other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expence, by persons of ability and learning; in consequence of which, considerable discoveries have been made.

The Northern Archipelago, as it is generally called, consists of several clusters of islands, situated between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka and the western coast of the continent of Asia. Mr. Muller divides these islands into four principal groups, the two first of which are called the Aleutian Islands. The first group, which is denominated *S. 1* by some of the islanders, comprehends Bering's Island, Copper Island, Otma, Samyra or Shemya, and Anaska. The second group is called *Kkao*, and comprizes eight islands, namely, Immak, Kiska, Tchetchia, Aya, Kavia, Ischangulak, Ulagama, and Amtschidga. The third general appellation is *Negho*, comprehending the islands known to the Russians under the name of *Andreanoffki Ostrova*, sixteen of which are called *Amatkinak*, *Ulak*, *Unalga*, *Navotsha*, *Uliga*, *Anagin*, *Kagulak*, *Illak* or *Illak*, *Takafanga*, *Kanaga*, (which two last are volcanoes) *Leg*, *Skerdhuna*, *Tagaloon*, *Goreloi*, *Otchia*, and *Amls*. The fourth group is called *Kavalang*, and comprehends sixteen islands, which are called by the Russians *Lyffe Ostrova*, or the *Fox Islands*; and which are denominated *Amuchta*, *Ischigama*, *Ischegula*, *Umotra*, *Ulaga*, *Fauagulana*, *Kagamin*, *Kigalga*, *Skelmaga*, *Umnak*, *Agun*, *Alashka*, *Unimga*, *Uligan*, *Anturo-Leisume*, *Semidit*, and *Senagak*. Besides these islands, Captain Cook discovered several other small ones in a higher northern latitude.

Some of the above islands are only inhabited occasionally, and others are very thinly peopled; but a few of them are extremely populous, and as well cultivated as the situation, circumstances, and wants of the natives, require. Copper Island derives its name from the quantities of that metal which the waves throw on its coast.

The inhabitants of these islands are in general short in stature, with strong and robust limbs, though active and supple. They have lank black hair, small beards, flattish faces,

and

and salt skins; and are, for the most part, endowed with strong constitutions, adapted to the boisterous regions they inhabit. The natives of the Aleutian Isles live on the spontaneous productions of the earth, and sea-animals; and their cloathing is composed of the skins of otters and the plumage of birds. Though the rivers abound with salmon, and the sea with turbot, they totally neglect their fisheries, and seem to be perfectly unacquainted with the gratifications of luxury, and unsolicitous even of availing themselves of those advantages which nature has thrown in their way.

The Fox Islands are so denominated from the great numbers of black, grey, and red foxes, with which they abound. The usual dress of the inhabitants consists of caps, and fur coats which reach down to their knees; and some of them wear common caps of party-coloured bird-skins, on which they leave some of the plumage of the wings and tail. On the fore-parts of their hunting and fishing-caps they affix small boards shaped like screens, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea-bears, and ornamented with glass beads which they receive from the Russians in the intercourse of trade: however, at their festivals, and on dancing occasions, their heads are decorated with a sort of caps much more gaudy and expensive than the former. They feed on the flesh of all sorts of sea-animals, which they generally eat raw: but if at any time they are inclined to dress their food, they deposit it in a hollow stone, which they cover with another, closing the interstices with lime or clay; after which they lay it horizontally on two stones, and light a fire under it. Those provisions which are intended to be kept are dried with salt in the open air. Their offensive weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts; and, by way of defence, they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality seems to subsist among these islanders: they have neither chiefs nor superiors, laws nor punishments; they live together in families, and societies of several families united, which constitute what they call a race; and in cases of attack or defence they mutually assist each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the like race; and every person considers his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very frequently celebrated; but more especially when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of another: on such occasions, the men meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance; at the conclusion of which singing and dancing, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the entertainment. They feed their children, when very young, with the coarsest flesh, generally raw; and when an infant screams, the mother immediately carries it to the sea-shore, even during the most inclement season, and immerses it in the water till it ceases crying. This seemingly barbarous custom is so far from injuring their offspring, that it hardens them against the cold; and they accordingly walk bare-footed, throughout the brumal season, without experiencing the smallest inconvenience. The natives seldom kindle fires in their dwellings; but, when desirous of warming themselves, they light bundles of hay, or else set fire to train-oil, which they pour into hollow stones.

These people possess a considerable share of natural sense, but are by no means quick of

of apprehension. They appear to be cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but if an injury, or even the supposition of an injury, rouses them from this phlegmatic state, they become inflexible and furious, and exercise the cruellest revenge, without paying any regard to consequences. A small share of affliction stimulates them to suicide; and even the apprehension of an uncertain evil often involves them in such despair, that they destroy themselves with great apathy.

Since these islands have been known to the Russians, their population has considerably decreased: many of the natives having been slain in occasional rencounters; more carried off by famine; and a still greater number becoming victims to the introduction of those foreign luxuries which never fail to enervate, and but seldom to destroy, even the most puissant empires.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

CONTAINING

THE LATITUDES OF THE PRINCIPAL CITIES, TOWNS, SEAS, GULPHS, BAYS, STRAITS,
CAPES, AND ISLANDS,
IN THE KNOWN WORLD.

WITH

THEIR LONGITUDES FROM THE MERIDIAN OF THE ROYAL OBSERVATORY AT GREENWICH;
AND

THE TIME OF HIGH WATER AT THE FULL AND CHANGE OF THE MOON,
AT THOSE PLACES WHERE IT HAS BEEN OBSERVED.

AS PUBLISHED BY THE

BOARD OF LONGITUDE.

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.		Longitude.		High Water.
					In Degrees.	In Time.	
			D. M. S.		D. M. S.	H. M. S.	H. M.
A BBEVILLE	Europe	France	50 7 1 N		1 49 45 E	0 7 19 E	
Abo	Europe	Finland	60 27 10 N		22 13 30 E	1 28 54 E	
Achem	Asia	Sumatra	5 22 0 N		95 34 0 E	6 22 16 E	
Adventure Bay	Asia	New Holland	43 23 0 S		147 30 0 E	9 50 0 E	
Adventure Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 5 15 S		144 17 45 W	9 37 11 W	
Agde	Europe	France	43 18 57 N		3 28 11 E	0 13 53 E	
Agen	Europe	France	44 12 7 N		0 35 49 E	0 3 23 E	
Agnes, St. Lights	Europe	Scillies	49 56 0 N		6 46 0 W	0 27 4 W	
Agra	Asia	India	26 43 0 N		76 44 0 E	5 6 56 E	
Aire	Europe	France	43 31 35 N		5 26 34 E	0 21 46 E	
Aix	Europe	France	43 31 35 N		5 26 15 E	0 21 45 E	
Alby	Europe	France	43 55 44 N		2 8 45 E	0 8 35 E	
Aleppo	Asia	Turkey	35 45 23 N		37 20 0 E	2 29 20 E	
Alexandretta	Asia	Syria	36 35 10 N		36 20 0 E	2 25 20 E	
Alexandria	Africa	Egypt	31 11 20 N		30 16 30 E	2 1 6 E	
Algiers	Africa	Algiers	36 49 30 N		2 12 45 E	0 8 51 E	
Amboise	Europe	France	47 24 54 N		0 59 7 W	0 3 56 W	
Ambrym Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 9 30 S		168 12 30 E	11 12 50 E	
Amiens	Europe	France	49 53 38 N		2 17 56 E	0 9 12 E	
Amsterdam	Europe	Holland	52 22 45 N		4 45 30 E	0 19 2 E	3 0
Amsterdam Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	21 9 0 S		174 46 0 W	11 39 4 W	8 30
Ancona	Europe	Italy	43 37 54 N		13 30 30 E	0 54 2 E	
Angers	Europe	France	47 28 8 N		0 33 52 W	0 2 15 W	
Angoulême	Europe	France	45 39 3 N		0 8 45 E	0 0 35 E	
Angra	Europe	Tercera	38 39 0 N		27 12 15 W	1 48 49 W	
Annamocka	Asia	Pacific Ocean	20 16 30 S		174 30 30 W	11 38 2 W	
Anthony's, St. Cape	America	Staten Land	54 46 45 S				
Antibes	Europe	France	43 34 50 N		7 8 30 E	0 28 34 E	
Antigua, St. John's	America	Caribbean Sea	17 4 30 N		62 9 0 W	4 8 36 W	
Antwerp	Europe	Flanders	51 13 15 N		4 22 45 E	0 17 31 E	6 0
Anvers	Europe	Netherlands	51 13 15 N		4 24 15 E	0 17 37 E	
Apæ Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 46 15 S		168 27 30 E	11 13 50 E	
Arafta	Asia	Turkey	36 1 0 N		38 50 0 E	2 35 20 E	

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.		Longitude.		High Water.
			D. M. S.	In Degrees.	In Time.	H. M. S.	
Archangel	Europe	Russia	64 34 0 N	38 55 0 E	2 35 40 E	6 0	
Arica	America	Peru	18 26 38 S	71 11 0 W	4 44 44 W		
Arles	Europe	France	43 40 33 N	4 38 0 E	0 18 32 E		
Arras	Europe	France	50 17 30 N	2 46 12 E	0 11 5 E		
Ascension Isle	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	7 56 30 S	14 22 31 W	0 57 25 W		
Athens	Europe	Turkey	38 5 0 N	23 52 30 E	1 35 30 E		
Auch	Europe	France	43 38 46 N	0 34 36 E	0 2 18 E		
Augustine, St.	Africa	Madagascar	23 35 29 S	43 8 0 E	2 52 32 E		
Aurillac	Europe	France	44 55 10 N	2 27 0 W	0 9 48 W		
Aurora Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	15 8 0 S	168 17 0 E	11 13 8 E		
Autun	Europe	France	46 56 46 N	4 18 8 E	0 17 14 E		
Auxerre	Europe	France	47 47 54 N	3 34 20 E	0 14 17 E		
Auxonne	Europe	France	47 11 24 N	5 23 35 E	0 21 34 E		
Avignon	Europe	France	43 57 25 N	4 48 33 E	0 19 14 E		
Avranches	Europe	France	48 41 18 N	1 22 38 W	0 5 31 W		
BABYLON, Ancient	Asia	Mesopotamia	33 0 0 N	42 46 30 E	2 51 6 E		
Bagdad	Asia	Mesopotamia	33 20 0 N	43 46 30 E	2 55 6 E		
Balafore	Asia	India	21 20 0 N	86 0 0 E	5 44 0 E		
Ballabea Isle	Asia	New Caledonia	20 7 0 S	164 22 0 E	10 57 28 E		
Banguey Peak	Asia	Malacca	7 18 0 N	117 17 30 E	7 49 10 E		
Barbas Cape	Africa	Sanhaga	22 15 30 N	16 40 0 W	1 6 40 W		
Barbuda Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	17 49 45 N	61 50 0 W	4 7 20 W		
Barcelona	Europe	Spain	41 26 0 N	2 13 0 E	0 8 52 E		
Barnevelt's Isle	America	Terra del Fuego	55 49 0 S	66 58 0 W	4 27 52 W		
Bartholomew, St. ? Isle	Asia	New Hebrides	15 42 0 S	167 17 30 E	11 9 10 E		
Basil	Europe	Switzerland	47 35 0 N	7 29 30 E	0 29 58 E		
Bafia Terre	America	Guadeloupe	15 59 30 N	61 59 15 W	4 7 57 W		
Batavia	Asia	Java	6 10 0 S	106 51 15 E	7 7 25 E		
Bath	Europe	England	51 22 30 N	2 21 30 W	0 9 26 W		
Bayeux	Europe	France	49 16 30 N	0 42 51 W	0 2 51 W		
Bayonne	Europe	France	43 29 21 N	1 30 6 W	0 6 0 W	3 30	
Beachey Head	Europe	England	50 44 30 N	0 19 40 E	0 1 19 E		
Bear, Isle	America	Hudson's Bay	54 34 0 N	79 56 0 W	5 19 44 W	12 0	
Beauvois	Europe	France	49 26 2 N	2 4 42 E	0 8 19 E		
Belle Isle	Europe	France	47 17 30 N	3 6 30 W	0 12 26 W	2 30	
Bembridge Point	Europe	Isle of Wight	50 40 15 N	1 4 45 W	0 4 19 W		
Bencoolen	Asia	Sumatra	3 49 3 S	102 0 0 E	6 48 0 E		
Berlin	Europe	Germany	52 32 30 N	13 26 15 E	0 53 45 E		
Bermudas Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	32 35 0 N	63 28 0 W	4 13 52 W	7 0	
Besancon	Europe	France	47 13 45 N	6 2 40 E	0 24 11 E		
Befiers	Europe	France	43 20 41 N	3 12 35 E	0 12 50 E		
Blanco, Cape	Africa	Negroland	20 55 30 N	17 10 0 W	1 8 40 W	9 45	
Blanco, Cape	America	Patagonia	47 20 0 S	64 42 0 W	4 18 48 W		
Blois	Europe	France	47 35 19 N	1 19 50 E	0 5 19 E		
Bojador, Cape	Africa	Negroland	26 12 30 N	14 27 0 W	0 57 48 W		
Bolabola Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 32 30 S	151 52 0 W	10 7 28 W		
Bologna	Europe	Italy	44 29 36 N	11 21 15 E	0 45 25 E		
Bolscherefskoi	Asia	Siberia	52 54 30 N	156 37 30 E	10 26 30 E		
Bombay	Asia	India	18 56 40 N	72 38 0 E	4 50 32 E		
Bonavista, Isle	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	16 6 0 N	22 47 15 W	1 31 9 W		
Boston	America	New England	42 25 0 N	70 37 15 W	4 42 29 W		

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.		Longitude.		High Water.
			D. M. S.	D. M. S.	In Degrees.	In Time.	
Botany Island	Asia	New Caledonia	22 26 40 S	167 16 45 E	11 9 47 E		
Bologne	Europe	France	50 43 31 N	1 36 44 E	0 6 27 E	10 30	
Bourbon, Isle	Africa	Indian Ocean	20 51 43 S	55 30 0 E	3 42 0 E		
Bourdeaux	Europe	France	44 50 18 N	0 34 49 W	0 2 19 W	3 0	
Bourges	Europe	France	47 4 58 N	2 23 26 E	0 9 14 E		
Breslaw	Europe	Silesia	51 3 0 N	17 8 45 E	1 8 35 E		
Brest	Europe	France	48 22 55 N	4 30 50 W	0 18 3 W	3 45	
Bridge Town	America	Barbadoes	13 5 0 N	58 35 0 W	3 54 20 W		
Brieux, St.	Europe	France	48 31 21 N	2 43 17 W	0 10 53 W		
Brittol, Cape	America	Sandwich Land	59 2 30 S	26 51 0 W	1 47 24 W		
Brussels	Europe	Brabant	50 51 0 N	4 21 45 E	0 17 27 E		
Buenos Ayres	America	Brasil	34 35 26 S	58 31 15 W	3 54 5 W		
Bukaroff	Europe	Walachia	44 26 45 N	26 8 0 E	1 44 32 E		
Buller, Cape	America	South Georgia	53 58 30 S	37 40 0 W	2 30 40 W		
Burgeo Isles	America	Newfoundland	47 36 20 N	57 36 30 W	3 50 24 W		
Burlings	Europe	Portugal	39 20 0 N	9 36 45 W	0 38 27 W		
CABELLO, Port	America	Terra Firma	10 30 50 N	67 32 0 W	4 30 8 W		
Cadiz	Europe	Spain	36 31 7 N	6 11 50 W	0 24 47 W	4 30	
Caen	Europe	France	49 11 10 N	0 21 47 W	0 1 27 W	9 0	
Cahors	Europe	France	44 26 4 N	1 26 51 E	0 5 47 E		
Cairo	Africa	Egypt	30 2 44 N	31 18 16 E	2 5 49 E		
Calais	Europe	France	50 57 31 N	1 50 56 E	0 7 24 E	11 30	
Callao	America	Peru	12 1 53 S	76 58 0 W	5 7 52 W		
Calcutta, Fort } William }	Asia	India	22 34 45 N	88 29 30 E	5 53 58 E		
Calmar	Europe	Sweden	56 40 30 N	16 21 45 E	1 5 27 E		
Cambray	Europe	France	50 10 32 N	3 13 41 E	0 12 55 E		
Cambridge	Europe	England	52 12 36 N	0 4 15 E	0 0 17 E		
Cambridge	America	New England	42 25 0 N	71 10 0 W	4 44 40 W		
Canary Isle, N. } E. Point }	Africa	Canaries	28 13 0 N	15 38 45 W	1 2 35 W	3 0	
Candia, Isle	Europe	Mediterranean Sea	35 18 35 N	25 18 0 E	1 41 12 E		
Candlemas Isles	America	Sandwich Land	57 10 0 S	27 13 0 W	1 48 52 W		
Canfo, Port	America	Nova Scotia	45 20 7 N	60 55 0 W	4 3 40 W		
Canton	Asia	China	23 7 50 N	113 2 15 E	7 32 9 E		
Carlescroon	Europe	Sweden	56 20 0 N	15 26 15 E	1 1 45 E		
Carthagera	Europe	Spain	37 37 0 N	1 8 30 W	0 4 34 W		
Carthagera	America	Terra Firma	10 26 35 N	75 26 45 W	5 1 47 W		
Casan	Asia	Siberia	55 43 58 N	49 8 15 E	3 16 33 E		
Cassel	Europe	Germany	51 19 4 N	9 29 0 E	0 37 56 E		
Castres	Europe	France	43 37 10 N	2 14 45 E	0 8 59 E		
St. Catherine's Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	27 35 0 S	49 17 0 W	3 17 30 W		
Cavan	Europe	Ireland	54 51 41 N	7 23 0 W	0 29 32 W		
Cayenne	America	Isle Cayenne	4 56 0 N	52 15 0 W	3 29 0 W		
Cette	Europe	France	43 23 51 N	3 42 7 E	0 14 48 E		
Challon	Europe	France	46 46 50 N	4 51 25 E	0 19 26 E		
Châlons	Europe	France	48 57 12 N	4 22 12 E	0 17 29 E		
Chandernagor	Asia	India	22 51 26 N	88 29 15 E	5 53 27 E		
Charlotte Q. Sound	Asia	New Zealand	41 5 58 S	174 13 32 E	11 36 54 E	9 0	
Charl. Q. Foreland	Asia	New Caledonia	22 15 0 S	167 12 45 E	11 8 51 E		
Charlotte Q. Cape	America	South Georgia	54 32 0 S	36 11 30 W	2 24 46 W		
Charlton Isle	America	Hudson's Bay	52 3 0 N	79 5 0 W	5 16 20 W		

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.		Longitude.		High Water.
			D. M. S.		In Degrees.	In Time.	
Chartres	Europe	France	48 26 49 N		1 28 55 E	0 5 56 E	
Cherbourg	Europe	France	49 38 26 N		1 38 11 W	0 6 33 W	7 30
Christmas Sound	America	Terra del Fuego	55 21 57 S		70 2 50 W	4 40 11 W	2 30
St. Christopher's Isle	America	Caribbean Sea	17 15 0 N		62 43 0 W	4 10 52 W	
Churchill River	America	Hudson's Bay	58 47 32 N		94 7 30 W	6 16 30 W	7 20
Civita Vecchia	Europe	Italy	42 5 24 N		11 46 15 E	0 47 5 E	
Cape Clear	Europe	Ireland	51 18 0 N		11 15 0 W	0 45 0 W	4 30
Clerke's Isles	America	Atlantic Ocean	55 5 30 S		34 42 0 W	2 18 48 W	
Clermont	Europe	France	45 46 45 N		3 5 7 E	0 12 20 E	
Cape Colenet	Asia	New Caledonia	20 30 0 S		164 56 0 E	10 59 44 E	
Colmar	Europe	France	48 4 44 N		7 22 11 E	0 29 29 E	
Cologne	Europe	Germany	50 55 0 N		7 5 0 E	0 28 20 E	
Cape Comorin	Asia	India	7 56 0 N		78 5 0 E	5 12 20 E	
Compiègne	Europe	France	49 24 59 N		2 49 41 E	0 11 19 E	
Conception	America	Chili	36 42 53 S		72 40 0 W	4 50 40 W	
Cooper's Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	54 57 0 S		36 4 20 W	2 24 17 W	
Constantinople	Europe	Turkey	41 1 24 N		28 53 49 E	1 55 35 E	
Copenhagen	Europe	Denmark	55 40 45 N		12 35 15 E	0 50 21 E	
Coquimbo	America	Chili	29 54 26 S		71 15 45 W	4 45 3 W	
Cork	Europe	Ireland	51 53 54 N		8 28 15 W	0 33 53 W	6 30
Cape Coronation	Asia	New Caledonia	22 5 0 S		167 8 0 E	11 8 32 E	
Corvo	Europe	Azores	39 42 0 N		31 6 0 W	2 4 24 W	
Coutances	Europe	France	49 2 50 N		1 27 25 W	0 5 50 W	
Cowes	Europe	Isle of Wight	50 46 20 N		1 19 45 W	0 5 19 W	10 30
Cracow	Europe	Poland	50 10 0 N		19 50 0 E	1 19 20 E	
Cremsmünster	Europe	Germany	48 3 29 N		14 7 0 E	0 56 28 E	
Croific	Europe	France	47 17 40 N		2 31 42 W	0 10 7 W	
Cumberland, Cape	Asia	New Hebrides	14 39 30 S		166 47 0 E	11 7 8 E	
Cummin, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	31 40 0 N		121 4 0 E	8 4 16 E	
DANTZIC	Europe	Poland	54 22 0 N		18 33 37 E	1 14 14 E	
Dassen Island	Africa	Caffres	33 25 0 S		18 2 0 E	1 12 8 E	
Dax	Europe	France	43 42 23 N		1 3 55 W	0 4 16 W	
St. Dennis	Africa	Isle of Bourbon	20 51 43 S		55 30 0 E	3 42 0 E	
Diego, Cape	America	Terra del Fuego	54 33 0 S		65 14 0 W	4 20 56 W	
Dieppe	Europe	France	49 55 17 N		1 4 12 E	0 4 17 E	10 30
Dijon	Europe	France	47 19 22 N		5 2 23 E	0 20 10 E	
Dillingen	Europe	Germany	48 30 0 N		10 14 30 E	0 40 58 E	
Disappointm. Cape	America	South Georgia	54 58 0 S		36 15 0 W	2 25 0 W	
Disfada, Cape	America	Terra del Fuego	55 4 15 S		74 18 0 W	4 57 12 W	
Dol	Europe	France	48 33 9 N		1 46 12 W	0 7 5 W	
Dominique, Isle	America	Windward Isles	15 18 23 N		61 27 55 W	4 5 52 W	
Douay	Europe	Flanders	50 22 12 N		3 4 47 E	0 12 19 E	
Dover	Europe	England	51 7 47 N		1 18 30 E	0 5 14 E	11 30
Dreux	Europe	France	48 44 17 N		1 21 24 E	0 5 26 E	
Drontheim	Europe	Norway	63 26 10 N		11 3 45 E	0 44 15 E	
Dublin	Europe	Ireland	53 21 11 N		6 6 30 W	0 24 26 W	9 15
Dungeness	Europe	England	50 52 20 N		0 59 6 E	0 3 56 E	9 45
Dunkirk	Europe	France	51 2 4 N		2 22 23 E	0 9 30 E	
Duskey Bay	Asia	New Zealand	45 47 27 S		166 18 9 E	11 5 13 E	10 57
Dunnofe	Europe	England	50 33 30 N		1 16 20 W	0 5 5 W	9 45
BAOWE, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	21 24 0 S		174 30 0 W	11 38 0 W	
Easter Island	America	Pacific Ocean	27 6 30 S		109 46 45 W	7 19 7 W	2 0

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.		High Water.
				In Degrees.	In Time.	
Edinburgh	Europe	Scotland	D. M. S. 55 57 57 N	D. M. S. 3 12 15 W	H. M. S. 0 12 49 W	H. M. 4 30
Eddystone	Europe	English Channel	50 8 0 N	4 24 0 W	0 17 24 W	5 30
Embrun	Europe	France	44 34 0 N	6 29 0 E	0 25 56 E	
Enatum, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	20 10 0 S	170 4 0 E	11 20 16 E	
English Road	Asia	Baoowe	21 20 30 S	174 34 0 W	11 38 16 W	
Erramanga, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	18 46 30 S	169 18 30 E	11 17 14 E	
Erzerum	Asia	Armenia	39 56 35 N	48 35 45 E	3 14 23 E	
Eustachia, Town	America	Caribbean Sea	17 29 0 N	63 10 0 W	4 12 40 W	
Evout's Isles	America	Terra del Fuego	55 34 30 S	66 39 0 W	4 27 56 W	
Everoux	Europe	France	49 1 24 N	1 8 39 E	0 4 35 E	
Exeter	Europe	England	50 44 0 N	3 34 30 W	0 14 18 W	
FALMOUTH	Europe	England	50 8 0 N	5 2 30 W	0 20 10 W	5 30
False, Cape	Africa	Caffres	34 16 0 S	18 44 0 E	1 14 56 E	
False Bay	Africa	Caffres	34 10 0 S	18 33 0 E	1 14 12 E	
Farewell, Cape	America	Greenland	59 38 0 N	42 42 0 W	2 50 48 W	
Farewell, Cape	Asia	New Zealand	40 37 0 S	172 41 30 E	11 30 46 E	
Fayal, Town	Europe	Azores	38 32 20 N	28 41 5 W	1 54 44 W	2 20
Ferdinand Noronha	America	Brazil	3 56 20 S	32 38 0 W	2 10 32 W	
Ferrara	Europe	Italy	44 54 0 N	11 36 15 E	0 46 25 E	
Ferro Isle, Town	Africa	Canaries	27 47 20 N	17 45 50 W	1 11 3 W	
Finisterre, Cape	Europe	Spain	42 51 52 N	9 17 10 W	0 37 9 W	
Florence	Europe	Italy	43 46 30 N	11 2 0 E	0 44 8 E	
Flores	Europe	Azores	39 34 0 N	31 0 0 W	2 4 8 W	
Flour, St.	Europe	France	45 1 55 N	3 5 30 E	0 12 22 E	
Fortaventure, W. Point	Africa	Canaries	28 4 0 N	14 31 30 W	0 58 6 W	
Foul, Point	Africa	Madagascar	17 40 14 S	49 53 0 E	3 19 32 E	
France, Isle of	Africa	Indian Ocean	20 9 45 S	57 28 0 E	3 49 52 E	
Francfort on the Maine	Europe	Germany	49 55 0 N	8 35 0 E	0 34 20 E	
François, Cape	America	Hispaniola	19 46 30 N	72 18 0 W	4 49 12 W	
François, Old Cape	America	Hispaniola	19 40 30 N	70 2 0 W	4 40 8 W	
Frawenburgh	Europe	Prussia	54 22 15 N	20 7 30 E	1 20 30 E	
Frejus	Europe	France	43 26 3 N	6 44 45 E	0 26 59 E	
Frekel, Cape	Europe	France	48 41 3 N	6 0 0 W	0 24 0 W	
Friesland's Peak	America	Sandwich Land	59 2 0 S	26 55 30 W	1 47 42 W	
Fronfac, Strait	America	Nova Scotia	45 36 57 N	61 19 30 W	4 5 18 W	
Fuego, Isle	Africa	Cape Verd	14 56 45 N	24 28 0 W	1 37 52 W	
Funchal	Africa	Madeira	32 37 40 N	17 6 15 W	1 8 25 W	12 4
Furneaux Island	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 11 0 S	143 6 40 W	9 28 27 W	
GAP	Europe	France	44 33 50 N	6 4 57 E	0 24 20 E	
Gabey	Asia	New Guinea	0 6 0 S	126 23 45 E	8 25 35 E	
Genes	Europe	Italy	44 25 0 N	8 35 45 E	0 34 23 E	
Geneva	Europe	Savoy	46 12 0 N	6 0 0 E	0 24 0 E	
Genoa	Europe	Italy	44 25 0 N	8 35 45 E	0 34 23 E	
George, St. Isle	Europe	Azores	38 39 0 N	28 0 0 W	1 52 0 W	
George, St. Town	America	Bermudas	32 45 0 N	63 35 0 W	4 14 20 W	
George, St. Fort	Asia	India	13 4 54 N	80 28 45 E	5 21 55 E	
George, St. Cape	Asia	New Britain	4 53 30 S	153 8 45 E	10 12 35 E	
George, Cape	America	South Georgia	54 17 0 S	36 32 30 W	2 26 10 W	
Ghent	Europe	Flanders	51 3 0 N	3 43 45 E	0 14 55 E	

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.		Longitude.		High Water.
			D. M. S.	In Degrees.	In Time.	H. M. S.	
Gibraltar	Europe	Spain	36 5 30 N	5 22 0 W	0 21 28 W		
Gilbert's Isle	America	Terra del Fuego	55 13 0 S	71 6 45 W	4 44 11 W		
Glasgow	Europe	Scotland	55 51 32 N	4 15 0 W	0 17 0 W		
Goa	Asia	India	15 31 0 N	73 45 0 E	4 55 0 E		
Goat Isle	Asia	Indian Ocean	13 55 0 N	120 2 0 E	8 0 8 E		
Gomera, Isle	Africa	Canaries	28 5 40 N	17 8 0 W	1 8 32 W		
Good Hope, Cape	Africa	Caffres	34 29 0 S	18 23 15 E	1 13 33 E	3 0	
Good Hope, Town	Africa	Caffres	33 55 42 S	18 23 15 E	1 13 33 E	2 30	
Goree, Isle	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	14 40 10 N	17 25 0 W	1 9 40 W	1 30	
Gottenburg	Europe	Sweden	57 42 0 N	11 38 45 E	0 46 35 E		
Gottengen Ob- servatory	Europe	Germany	51 31 54 N	9 53 0 E	0 39 32 E		
Granville	Europe	France	48 50 11 N	1 37 7 W	0 6 28 W	7 0	
Grasse	Europe	France	43 39 25 N	6 56 0 E	0 27 44 E		
Gratiosa	Europe	Azores	39 2 0 N	27 58 0 W	1 51 52 W		
Gratz	Europe	Germany	47 4 18 N	15 24 45 E	1 1 39 E		
Gravelines	Europe	Flanders	50 59 4 N	2 7 32 E	0 8 30 E		
Greenwich Ob- servatory	Europe	England	51 28 40 N	0 0 0	0 0 0		
Grenoble	Europe	France	45 11 49 N	5 43 40 E	0 22 55 E		
Gryphiswald	Europe	Germany	54 4 25 N	13 38 30 E	0 54 34 E		
Guadaloupe	America	Caribbean Sea	15 59 30 N	61 59 15 W	4 7 57 W		
Guiaquil	America	Peru	2 11 21 S	81 11 30 W	5 24 46 W		
Gurieff	Asia	Siberia	47 7 8 N	51 57 0 E	3 27 48 E		
HAGUE	Europe	Netherlands	52 4 10 N	4 17 30 E	0 17 10 E	8 15	
Hamburg	Europe	Netherlands	53 34 8 N	9 50 0 E	0 39 20 E	6 0	
Hang-lip, Cape	Africa	Caffres	34 16 0 S	18 44 0 E	1 14 56 E		
Harborough, Mark.	Europe	England	52 28 30 N	0 57 25 W	0 3 50 W		
Hastings	Europe	England	50 52 10 N	0 41 10 E	0 2 45 E		
Havannah	America	Cuba	23 11 52 N	82 18 30 W	5 29 14 W		
Havre-de-grace	Europe	France	49 29 9 N	0 5 57 E	0 0 24 E	9 0	
Heefe, La	Europe	Netherlands	51 23 2 N	4 45 30 E	0 19 2 E		
Helena, St. James Town	Africa	South Atlantic Ocean	15 55 0 S	5 49 0 W	0 23 16 W		
Henlopen, Cape	America	Virginia	38 47 8 N	75 4 15 W	5 0 15 W		
Hernofand	Europe	Sweden	62 38 0 N	17 53 0 E	1 11 32 E		
Hervey's Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	19 17 0 S	158 48 0 W	10 35 12 W		
Hinchingbroke Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 25 0 S	168 38 0 E	11 14 32 E		
Hoai-Nghan	Asia	China	33 34 40 N	118 49 30 E	7 55 18 E		
Hogue, Cape La	Europe	France	49 44 40 N	1 56 50 W	0 7 47 W		
Hood's Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	9 26 0 S	138 52 0 W	9 15 28 W		
Hoogstraeten	Europe	Netherlands	51 24 44 N	4 47 0 E	0 19 8 E		
Horn, Cape	America	Terra del Fuego	55 58 30 S	67 26 0 W	4 29 44 W		
Hout Bay	Africa	Caffres	34 3 0 S	18 19 0 E	1 13 16 E		
Howe's Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 46 30 S	154 6 40 W	10 16 27 W		
Huahine, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 44 0 S	151 6 0 W	10 4 24 W		
JAKUTSKOI	Asia	Siberia	62 1 30 N	129 47 45 E	8 39 11 E		
Janeiro, Rio	America	Brazil	22 54 10 S	42 43 45 W	2 50 55 W		
Jassy	Europe	Moldavia	47 8 30 N	27 29 45 E	1 49 59 E		
Java Head	Asia	Java	6 49 0 S	106 50 0 E	7 7 20 E		
Jerusalem	Asia	Palestine	31 55 0 N	35 20 0 E	2 21 20 E		

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.		Longitude.		High Water.
			In Degrees.	In Time.			
Ildefonso's, St. Isles	America	Terra del Fuego	55 51 0 S	69 21 0 W	4 37 52 W		
Immer Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	19 16 0 S	169 46 0 E	11 19 4 E		
Ingolfstadt	Europe	Germany	48 45 45 N	11 22 30 E	0 45 30 E		
John's, St.	America	Antigua	17 4 30 N	62 9 0 W	4 8 36 W		
John's, St.	America	Newfoundland	47 32 0 N	52 26 0 W	3 29 44 W	6 0	
Joseph's, St.	America	California	23 3 42 S	109 42 30 W	7 18 50 W		
Irraname, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	19 31 0 S	170 21 0 E	11 21 24 E		
Islamabad	Asia	India	22 20 0 N	91 45 0 E	6 7 0 E		
Isle of Pines	Asia	Pacific Ocean	22 38 0 S	167 38 0 E	11 10 32 E		
Isfahan	Asia	Persia	32 25 0 N	52 50 0 E	3 31 20 E		
Juan, St. Cape	America	Staten Land	54 47 10 S	63 47 0 W	4 15 8 W		
Judda	Asia	Arabia	21 29 0 N	39 22 0 E	2 37 28 E		
Julian, St. Port	America	Patagonia	49 10 0 S	68 44 0 W	4 34 56 W	4 45	
Juthia	Asia	India	14 18 0 N	100 50 0 E	6 43 20 E		
KEDGEREE	Asia	India	21 48 0 N	88 50 15 E	5 55 21 E		
Kiow	Europe	Ukraine	50 30 0 N	31 7 30 E	2 4 30 E		
Kola	Europe	Lapland	68 52 30 N	33 8 0 E	2 12 32 E		
LADRONE, Grand	Asia	Pacific Ocean	22 2 0 N	113 56 0 E	7 35 44 E		
Laguna	Africa	Teneriffe	28 28 57 N	16 18 15 W	1 5 13 W		
Lancarota, E. Point	Africa	Canaries	29 14 0 N	13 26 0 W	0 53 44 W		
Landau	Europe	France	49 11 38 N	8 7 30 E	0 32 30 E		
Landskroon	Europe	Sweden	55 52 0 N	12 46 45 E	0 51 7 E		
Langres	Europe	France	47 52 17 N	5 19 23 E	0 21 18 E		
Lausanne	Europe	Switzerland	46 31 5 N	6 45 15 E	0 27 1 E		
Lectoure	Europe	France	43 56 2 N	0 36 53 E	0 2 28 E		
Leeds	Europe	England	53 48 0 N	1 34 15 W	0 6 17 W		
Leicester	Europe	England	52 38 0 N	1 8 30 W	0 4 34 W		
Leipfic	Europe	Saxony	51 19 14 N	12 20 0 E	0 49 20 E		
Leper's Island	Asia	Pacific Ocean	15 23 30 S	167 58 15 E	11 11 53 E		
Lefkeard	Europe	England	50 26 55 N	4 41 45 W	0 18 47 W		
Lefparre	Europe	France	45 18 33 N	0 57 3 W	0 3 48 W		
Leyden	Europe	Holland	52 10 0 N	4 27 30 E	0 17 50 E		
Liege	Europe	Netherlands	50 37 30 N	5 35 0 E	0 22 20 E		
Lima	America	Peru	12 1 15 S	76 49 30 W	5 7 18 W		
Limoges	Europe	France	45 49 53 N	1 15 9 E	0 5 1 E		
Lintz	Europe	Germany	48 16 0 N	13 57 30 E	0 55 0 E		
Lisieux	Europe	France	49 11 0 N	0 15 0 E	0 1 0 E		
Lisle	Europe	Flanders	50 37 50 N	3 4 16 E	0 12 17 E		
Lisbon	Europe	Portugal	38 42 25 N	9 9 59 W	0 36 40 W	2 15	
Lion's Bank	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	56 40 0 N	17 45 0 W	1 11 0 W		
Lisburne, Cape	Asia	New Hebrides	15 40 45 S	166 57 0 E	11 7 48 E		
Lizard	Europe	England	49 57 30 N	5 15 0 W	0 21 0 W	7 30	
Lombes	Europe	France	43 28 30 N	0 55 9 E	0 3 41 E		
London, St. Paul's	Europe	England	51 31 0 N	0 5 57 W	0 0 22 1/2 W	3 0	
Lorenzo, Cape	America	Peru	1 2 0 S	80 17 0 W	5 21 8 W		
Louis, St. Port	America	Hispaniola	18 18 50 N	73 16 0 W	4 53 4 W		
Louis, St. Port	Africa	Mauritius	20 9 45 S	57 28 0 E	3 49 52 E		
Louisbourg	America	Cape Breton	45 53 39 N	59 53 45 W	3 59 35 W		
Louveau	Asia	India	12 42 30 N	101 1 30 E	6 44 6 E		
Louvain	Europe	Netherlands	50 53 3 N	4 44 15 E	0 18 57 E		
Lucia, St. Isle	America	Antilles	13 24 30 N	60 51 30 W	4 3 26 W		

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.		High Water.
				In Degrees.	In Time.	
Lunden	Europe	Sweden	55 41 36 N	13 21 15 E	0 53 25 E	
Luneville	Europe	France	48 35 33 N	6 30 06 E	0 26 00 E	
Lufon	Europe	France	46 27 14 N	1 10 34 W	0 4 42 W	
Luxembourg	Europe	Netherlands	49 37 06 N	6 11 45 E	0 24 47 E	
Lyons	Europe	France	45 45 51 N	4 49 43 E	0 19 19 E	
MACAO	Asia	China	22 12 44 N	113 46 15 E	7 35 5 E	
Macassar	Asia	Celebes	5 9 0 S	119 48 45 E	7 59 15 E	
Madeira Funchal	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	32 37 40 N	17 6 15 W	1 8 25 W	12 4
Madras	Asia	India	13 4 54 N	80 28 45 E	5 21 55 E	
MadredeDios, Port	Asia	Marquesas	9 55 30 S	139 8 40 W	9 16 35 W	2 30
Madrid	Europe	Spain	40 25 0 N	3 25 45 W	0 13 43 W	
Magdalena Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	10 25 30 S	138 49 0 W	9 15 16 W	
Mahon Port	Europe	Minorca	39 50 46 N	3 48 30 E	0 15 14 E	
Majorca Isle	Europe	Mediterranean Sea	39 35 0 N	2 29 45 E	0 9 59 E	
Malacca	Asia	India	2 12 6 N	102 5 0 E	6 48 20 E	
Malines	Europe	Netherlands	51 1 50 N	4 28 45 E	0 17 55 E	
Mallicola Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 15 30 S	167 39 15 E	11 10 37 E	
Maloes, St.	Europe	France	48 38 59 N	2 2 22 W	0 8 9 W	6 0
Malta, Isle	Africa	Mediterranean Sea	35 54 0 N	14 28 30 E	0 57 54 E	
Manilla	Asia	Philippines	14 36 8 N	120 53 24 E	8 3 34 E	
Marigalante, Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	15 55 15 N	61 11 0 W	4 4 44 W	
Marceilles	Europe	France	43 17 45 N	5 22 8 E	0 21 29 E	
Martha, St.	America	Terra Firma	11 26 40 N	74 4 30 W	4 56 18 W	
Martin's, St. Isle	America	Caribbean Sea	18 4 20 N	63 2 0 W	4 12 8 W	
Martinico, Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	14 44 0 N	61 21 16 W	4 5 25 W	
Mary's, St. Isle	Europe	Scilly Isles	49 57 30 N	6 43 0 W	0 26 52 W	3 45
Mary's, St. Town	Europe	Azores	36 56 40 N	25 9 15 W	1 40 37 W	
Maskelyne's Isles	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 32 0 S	167 59 15 E	11 11 57 E	
Matthew, St. Lights	Europe	France	48 19 52 N	4 47 25 W	0 19 10 W	
Mauritius	Africa	Indian Ocean	20 9 45 S	57 29 15 E	3 49 57 E	
Maurua Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 25 40 S	152 32 40 W	10 10 11 W	
Mayance	Europe	Germany	49 54 0 N	8 20 0 E	0 33 20 E	
Mayne, John's, Isle	Europe	North Ocean	71 10 0 N	9 49 30 W	0 39 18 W	
Mayo Isle	Africa	Cape Verd	15 10 0 N	23 5 0 W	1 32 20 W	
Meaux	Europe	France	48 57 37 N	2 52 35 E	0 11 30 E	
Mende	Europe	France	44 30 47 N	3 29 32 E	0 13 58 E	
Mergui	Asia	Siam	12 12 0 N	98 8 45 E	6 32 35 E	
Metz	Europe	France	49 7 5 N	6 11 0 E	0 24 44 E	
Mew Stone	Asia	New Holland	43 48 0 S	146 27 0 E	9 45 48 E	
Mexico	America	Mexico	19 54 0 N	100 5 45 W	6 40 23 W	
Mézières	Europe	France	49 45 47 N	4 43 16 E	0 18 53 E	
Miatea, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 52 0 S	148 6 0 W	9 52 24 W	
Michael's, St. Isle	Europe	Azores	37 47 0 N	25 42 0 W	1 42 48 W	
Middleburg Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	21 20 30 S	174 34 0 W	11 38 16 W	
Milan	Europe	Italy	45 28 10 N	9 10 0 E	0 36 40 E	
Milo Isle	Europe	Mediterranean Sea	36 41 0 N	25 0 0 E	1 40 0 E	
Modena	Europe	Italy	44 34 0 N	11 12 30 E	0 44 50 E	
Mons	Europe	Netherlands	50 27 10 N	3 57 15 E	0 15 49 E	
Montagu, Cape	America	Sandwich Land	58 33 0 S	26 46 0 W	1 47 4 W	
Montagu, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 26 0 S	168 31 30 E	11 14 6 E	
Montmirail	Europe	France	48 52 8 N	3 32 16 E	0 14 9 E	
Montpellier	Europe	France	43 36 33 N	3 52 44 E	0 15 31 E	

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.		High Water.
				In Degrees.	In Time.	
Montferrat Isle	America	Caribbean Sea	16 47 30 N	62 17 0 W	4 9 8 W	
Monument, The	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 14 15 S	168 38 15 E	11 14 33 E	
Moscow	Europe	Moscovy	55 45 20 N	37 45 45 E	2 31 3 E	
Moulins	Europe	France	46 34 4 N	3 19 59 E	0 13 20 E	
Munich	Europe	Bavaria	48 9 55 N	11 30 0 E	0 46 0 E	
Musketto Cove	America	Greenland	64 55 13 N	52 56 45 W	3 31 47 W	10 15
Muswell Hill	Europe	England	51 35 32 N	07 20 W	0 0 29 W	
NAMUR	Europe	Netherlands	50 28 32 N	4 44 45 E	0 18 59 E	
Nancy	Europe	France	48 41 28 N	6 11 33 E	0 24 46 E	
Nangasacki	Asia	Japan	32 32 0 N	128 46 15 E	8 35 5 E	
Nantes	Europe	France	47 13 7 N	1 33 48 W	0 6 15 W	3 0
Naples	Europe	Italy	40 50 45 N	14 13 45 E	0 56 55 E	
Narbonne	Europe	France	43 11 13 N	3 0 8 E	0 12 1 E	
Nevers	Europe	France	46 59 13 N	3 9 25 E	0 12 38 E	
New Year's Harbour	America	Staten Land	54 48 55 S	64 11 0 W	4 16 44 W	
Nice	Europe	France	43 41 54 N	7 17 15 E	0 29 9 E	
Nicholas, St. Mole	America	Hispaniola	19 49 20 N	73 29 45 W	4 53 59 W	
Nieuport	Europe	Flanders	51 7 41 N	2 45 0 E	0 11 0 E	12 0
Ningpo	Asia	China	29 57 45 N	120 18 0 E	8 1 12 E	
Nismes	Europe	France	43 50 35 N	4 21 11 E	0 17 25 E	
Noir, Cape	America	Terra del Fuego	54 32 30 S	73 3 15 W	4 48 13 W	
Norfolk Island	Asia	Pacific Ocean	29 1 45 N	168 10 0 E	11 12 40 E	
Noriton	America	Pennsylvania	40 9 56 N	75 23 30 W	5 1 34 W	
North Cape	Europe	Lapland	71 10 0 N	25 57 0 E	1 43 48 E	3 0
North, Cape	America	South Georgia	54 4 45 N	38 15 0 W	2 33 0 W	
Noyon	Europe	France	49 34 37 N	3 0 43 E	0 12 3 E	
Nuremberg	Europe	Germany	49 27 10 N	11 7 0 E	0 44 28 E	
OAITIPEHA Bay	Asia	Otaheite	17 45 45 S	149 14 20 W	9 56 57 W	
Ochoz	Asia	Tartary	59 20 10 N	143 12 30 E	9 32 50 E	
Ohamaneno Harb.	Asia	Uliateah	16 45 30 N	151 38 5 W	10 6 32 W	11 20
Ohevahoa, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	9 40 40 S	139 1 40 W	9 16 7 W	
Ohitahoo, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	9 55 30 S	139 6 0 W	9 16 24 W	2 30
Oleron, Isle	Europe	France	46 2 50 N	1 25 13 W	0 5 41 W	
Olinde	America	Brazil	8 13 0 S	35 5 30 W	2 20 22 W	
St. Omer's	Europe	Flanders	50 44 46 N	2 14 57 E	0 9 0 E	
Onateayo, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	9 58 0 S	138 51 0 W	9 15 24 W	
Oporto	Europe	Portugal	41 10 0 N	8 27 0 W	0 33 48 W	
Orenburg	Asia	Tartary	51 46 0 N	55 9 30 E	3 40 38 E	
Orleans	Europe	France	47 54 4 N	1 54 22 E	0 7 37 E	
Orleans, New	America	Louisiana	29 57 45 N	89 58 45 W	5 59 55 W	
Orotava	Africa	Teneriffe	28 23 27 N	16 24 11 W	1 5 37 W	
Orsk	Asia	Tartary	51 12 30 N	58 32 30 E	3 54 10 E	
Ortagal, Cape	Europe	Spain	43 46 30 N	7 39 0 W	0 30 36 W	
Osnaburg, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 52 20 S	148 6 0 W	9 52 24 W	
Ostend	Europe	Netherlands	51 13 55 N	2 55 45 E	0 11 43 E	12 0
Owharre Bay	Asia	Huahine	16 44 0 S	151 8 15 W	10 4 33 W	
Oxford, Observat.	Europe	England	51 45 38 N	1 15 30 W	0 5 2 W	
PADUA	Europe	Italy	45 22 26 N	11 55 30 E	0 47 42 E	
Paita	America	Peru	5 12 0 S			
Palliser's Isles	Asia	Pacific Ocean	15 38 15 S	146 30 15 W	9 46 1 W	

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.		High Water.
				In Degrees.	In Time.	
			D. M. S.	D. M. S.	H. M. S.	H. M.
Palliser, Cape	Afia	New Zealand	41 38 0 S	175 18 0 E	11 44 30 E	
Palma, Isle	Africa	Canaries	28 36 45 N	17 50 0 W	1 11 20 W	
Palmerston's Isle	Afia	Pacific Ocean	18 0 0 S	162 57 0 W	10 51 48 W	
Panama	America	Mexico	8 47 48 N	80 28 0 W	5 21 24 W	
Paoom, Isle	Afia	Pacific Ocean	16 30 0 S	168 28 45 E	11 13 55 E	
Paris, Observatory	Europe	France	48 50 14 N	2 20 0 E	0 9 20 E	
Patricshord	Europe	Iceland	65 35 45 N	24 10 0 W	1 36 40 W	
Pau	Europe	France	43 15 0 N	0 9 0 W	0 0 36 W	
St. Paul's Isle	Africa	Indian Ocean	37 51 0 S	77 48 0 E	5 11 12 E	
St. Paul de Léon	Europe	France	48 40 55 N	4 0 21 W	0 16 1 W	4 0
Pekin	Afia	China	39 54 30 N	116 24 15 E	7 45 37 E	
Perigueux	Europe	France	45 11 10 N	0 43 1 E	0 2 52 E	
Perinaldi	Europe	Italy	43 53 20 N	7 40 0 E	0 30 40 E	
Perpignan	Europe	France	42 41 55 N	2 54 5 E	0 11 36 E	
Peter's, St. Fort	America	Martinico	14 44 0 N	61 21 16 W	4 5 25 W	
Peter's, St. Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	46 46 30 N	56 17 0 W	3 45 8 W	
Petersburg	Europe	Russia	59 56 0 N	30 19 15 E	2 1 17 E	
Petit Goave	America	Hispaniola	18 27 0 N	72 52 30 W	4 51 30 W	
Petropawlofskoi	Afia	Kamchatka	53 1 20 N	158 35 0 E	10 34 20 E	
Philadelphia	America	Pensylvania	39 56 55 N	75 13 30 W	5 0 54 W	
Philip's, St. Fort	Europe	Minorca	39 50 46 N	3 48 30 E	0 15 14 E	
Pickersgill's Isle	America	Atlantic Ocean	54 42 30 S	36 58 0 W	2 27 52 W	
Pickersgill's Harb.	Afia	New Zealand	45 47 27 S	166 18 9 E	11 5 13 E	
Pico	Europe	Azores	38 28 40 N	28 26 0 W	1 53 44 W	
Pines, Isle	Afia	New Caledonia	22 38 0 S	167 38 0 E	11 10 32 E	
Pifa	Europe	Italy	43 43 7 N	10 12 0 E	0 40 48 E	
Plymouth	Europe	England	50 22 24 N	4 15 38 W	0 17 3 W	6 0
Poitiers	Europe	France	46 35 0 N	0 20 5 E	0 1 20 E	
Pollinghen	Europe	Germany	47 48 8 N	10 43 45 E	0 42 55 E	
Pondicherry	Afia	India	11 41 55 N	79 52 45 E	5 19 31 E	
Ponoi	Europe	Lapland	67 6 30 N	36 23 15 E	2 25 33 E	
Pontoife	Europe	France	49 3 2 N	2 5 37 E	0 8 22 E	
Porto Bello	America	Mexico	9 33 5 N	79 50 0 W	5 19 20 W	
Porto Sancto, Isle	Africa	Madeira	32 58 15 N	16 25 15 W	1 5 41 W	
Port Royal	America	Jamaica	18 0 0 N	76 45 30 W	5 7 2 W	
Port Royal	America	Martinico	14 35 55 N	61 9 0 W	4 4 36 W	
Portsmouth Town	Europe	England	50 47 5 N	1 6 15 W	0 4 25 W	11 15
Portsmouth Acad.	Europe	England	50 48 3 N	1 6 18 W	0 4 25 W	
Portland Isle	Europe	North Sea	63 22 0 N	18 54 0 W	1 15 36 W	
Portland Isle	Afia	Pacific Ocean	39 25 0 S	178 12 0 E	11 52 48 E	
Port Paix	America	Hispaniola	19 58 0 N	73 2 0 W	4 48 8 W	
Port Praya	Africa	St. Jago	14 53 53 N	23 29 22 W	1 33 57 W	11 0
Prague	Europe	Bohemia	50 4 30 N	14 45 0 E	0 59 0 E	
P. of Wales's Fort	America	New Wales	58 47 32 N	94 7 30 W	6 16 30 W	
Providence	America	New England	41 50 40 N	71 26 0 W	4 45 44 W	
Pudyoua	Afia	New Caledonia	20 18 0 S	164 41 14 E	10 58 45 E	6 30
Pulo Condor, Isle	Afia	Indian Ocean	8 40 0 N	107 20 0 E	7 9 20 E	
Pulo Timon, Isle	Afia	Gulph of Siam	3 0 0 N	104 25 0 E	6 57 40 E	
Pyleftaart's Isle	Afia	Pacific Ocean	22 23 0 S	175 41 30 W	11 42 46 W	
QUEBEC	America	Canada	46 55 0 N	69 53 0 W	4 39 32 W	7 30
Quimper	Europe	France	47 58 24 N	4 7 25 W	0 16 30 W	
Quinton, St.	Europe	France	49 50 51 N	3 17 23 E	0 12 10 E	

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.		Longitude.		High Water.
			D. M. S.	D. M. S.	In Degrees.	In Time.	
Quiros, Cape	Asia	New Hebrides	14 56 8 S	167 20 0 E	11 9 20 E		
Quito	America	Peru	0 13 17 S	77 55 0 W	5 11 40 W		
RAKAH, Ancient	Asia	Mesopotamia	36 1 0 N	38 50 0 E	2 35 20 E		
Ramhead	Europe	England	50 18 40 N	4 20 15 W	0 17 21 W		
Re, Isle	Europe	France	46 14 48 N	1 34 28 W	0 6 18 W	3 0	
Recif	America	Brazil	8 10 0 S	35 35 0 W	2 22 20 W		
Reikianefs, Cape	Europe	Iceland	63 55 0 N	23 47 30 W	1 31 10 W		
Rennes	Europe	France	48 6 45 N	1 41 53 W	0 6 48 W		
Resolution Bay	Asia	Ohitahoo	9 55 30 S	139 8 40 W	9 16 35 W	2 30	
Resolution Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 23 30 S	141 45 0 W	9 27 0 W		
Resolution, Port	Asia	Tanna	19 32 25 S	169 41 5 E	11 18 44 E		
Rheims	Europe	France	49 14 36 N	4 2 53 E	0 16 12 E		
Rhodes	Europe	France	44 21 0 N	2 34 20 E	0 10 17 E		
Rimini	Europe	Italy	44 3 43 N	12 34 15 E	0 50 17 E		
Rio Janeiro	America	Brazil	22 54 10 S	42 43 45 W	2 50 55 W		
Rochelle	Europe	France	46 9 21 N	1 9 55 W	0 4 40 W	3 45	
Rochford	Europe	France	46 2 34 N	0 58 34 W	0 3 54 W	4 15	
Rock of Lisbon	Europe	Portugal	38 45 30 N	9 35 30 W	0 38 22 W		
Rodrigues Isle	Africa	Indian Ocean	19 40 40 S	63 10 0 E	4 12 40 E		
Rome, St. Peter's	Europe	Italy	41 53 54 N	12 29 15 E	0 49 57 E		
Rotterdam	Europe	Holland	51 56 0 N	4 28 15 E	0 17 53 E	3 0	
Rotterdam, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	20 16 30 S	174 30 30 W	11 38 2 W		
Rouen	Europe	France	49 26 43 N	1 5 20 W	0 4 21 W	1 15	
SABA, Isle	America	Caribbean Sea	17 39 30 N	63 17 15 W	4 13 9 W		
Sable, Cape	America	Nova Scotia	43 23 45 N	65 39 15 W	4 22 37 W		
Sagan	Europe	Silesia	51 42 12 N	15 22 15 E	1 1 29 E		
Saintes	Europe	France	45 44 43 N	0 38 54 W	0 2 36 W		
Sainte Croix	Europe	France	48 0 35 N	7 23 55 E	0 29 36 E		
Sall, Isle	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	16 38 15 N	22 56 15 W	1 31 45 W		
Salonique	Europe	Turkey	40 41 10 N	23 8 0 E	1 32 32 E		
Salvages Isles	Africa	Atlantic Ocean	30 0 0 N	15 54 0 W	1 3 36 W		
Samana	America	Hispaniola	19 15 0 N	69 16 30 W	4 37 6 W		
Sancta Cruz	Africa	Teneriffe	28 27 30 N	16 16 15 W	1 5 5 W		
Sandwich Bay	America	South Georgia	54 42 0 S	36 12 0 W	2 24 48 W		
Sandwich, Cape	Asia	Mallicola	16 28 0 S	167 59 0 E	11 11 56 E		
Sandwich Harbour	Asia	Mallicola	16 25 20 S	167 53 0 E	11 11 32 E		
Sandwich Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	17 41 0 S	168 33 0 E	11 14 12 E		
Saunders's Cape	America	Sandwich Land	54 6 30 S	36 57 30 W	2 27 50 W		
Saunders's Isle	America	South Georgia	58 0 0 S	26 58 0 W	1 47 52 W		
Savage Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	19 2 15 S	169 30 30 W	11 18 2 W		
Schwezingen	Europe	Germany	49 23 4 N	8 40 45 E	0 34 23 E		
Scilly Isles, Lights	Europe	English Channel	49 56 0 N	6 46 0 W	0 27 4 W		
Sebastian, St. Cape	Africa	Madagascar	12 30 0 S	46 25 0 E	3 5 40 E		
Sedan	Europe	France	49 42 29 N	4 57 36 E	0 19 50 E		
Seez	Europe	France	48 36 21 N	0 9 49 E	0 0 39 E		
Senegal	Africa	Negroland	15 53 0 N	16 31 30 W	1 6 6 W	10 30	
Senlis	Europe	France	49 12 23 N	2 35 0 E	0 10 20 E		
Sens	Europe	France	48 11 56 N	3 16 58 E	0 13 8 E		
Senones	Europe	France	48 23 7 N	6 57 0 E	0 27 48 E		
Shepherd's Isles	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 58 0 S	168 42 0 E	11 14 48 E		
Shirburn Castle	Europe	England	51 39 25 N	1 0 0 W	0 4 0 W		

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.		High Water.
				In Degrees.	In Time.	
Siam	Afia	India	14 18 0 N	100 50 0 E	6 43 20 F	
Si-ngham-fu	Afia	China	34 16 30 N	108 43 45 E	7 14 55 E	
Sisteron	Europe	France	44 11 21 N	5 56 4 E	0 23 44 E	
Smyrna	Afia	Natolia	38 28 7 N	27 19 45 E	1 49 15 E	
Snæfell, Mount	Europe	Iceland	64 52 20 N	23 54 0 W	1 35 36 W	
Soissons	Europe	France	49 22 32 N	3 19 28 E	0 13 18 E	
Sombavera Isles	America	Caribbean Sea	18 38 0 N	63 37 30 W	4 14 30 W	
Soolo	Afia	India	5 57 0 N	121 15 30 E	8 5 2 E	
Southern Thule	America	Sandwich Land	59 34 0 S	27 45 0 W	1 51 0 W	
Speaker Bank	Afia	Indian Ocean	4 45 0 S	72 57 0 E	4 51 48 E	
Stalbridge	Europe	England	50 57 0 N	2 23 30 W	0 9 34 W	
Start-Point	Europe	England	50 9 0 N	3 51 15 W	0 15 25 W	
Stockholm	Europe	Sweden	59 20 31 N	18 3 55 E	1 12 16 E	
Straumnefs	Europe	Iceland	65 39 40 N	24 29 15 W	1 37 57 W	
Strasbourg	Europe	France	48 34 36 N	7 46 18 E	0 31 5 E	
Success Bay	America	Terra del Fuego	54 49 45 S	65 25 0 W	4 21 40 W	
Success Cape	America	Terra del Fuego	55 1 0 S	65 27 0 W	4 21 48 W	
Sultz	Europe	France	47 53 10 N	7 14 32 W	0 28 58 W	
Surat	Afia	India	21 10 0 N	72 22 30 E	4 49 30 E	
TABLE Island	Afia	New Hebrides	15 38 0 S	167 7 0 E	11 8 28 E	
Tanna	Afia	Pacific Ocean	19 32 25 S	169 41 5 E	11 18 44 E	3 0
Taoukaa, Isle	Afia	Pacific Ocean	14 30 30 S	145 9 30 W	9 40 38 W	
Tarascon	Europe	France	43 48 20 N	4 39 36 E	0 18 38 E	
Tarbes	Europe	France	43 14 2 N	0 3 33 E	0 0 14 E	
Tassacorta	Africa	Isle Palma	28 38 0 N	17 58 0 W	1 11 52 W	
Temontengis	Afia	Soloo	5 57 0 N	120 53 30 E	8 3 34 E	
Teneriffe, Peak	Africa	Canaries	28 12 54 N	16 29 24 W	1 5 58 W	
Tercera	Europe	Azores	38 45 0 N	27 6 0 W	1 48 24 W	
Thionville	Europe	France	49 21 30 N	6 10 30 E	0 24 42 E	
Thomas, St. Isle	America	Virgin Isles	18 21 55 N	64 51 30 W	4 19 26 W	
Thule, Southern	America	Sandwich Land	59 34 0 S	27 45 0 W	1 51 0 W	
Thury	Europe	France	49 21 28 N	2 18 30 E	0 9 14 E	
Timor, S.W. Point	Afia	India	10 23 0 S	123 59 0 E	8 15 56 E	
Timor Land, S. Pt.	Afia	India	8 15 0 S	131 54 0 E	8 47 36 E	
Tobolski	Afia	Siberia	58 12 18 N	68 12 45 E	4 38 51 E	
Tolaga Bay	Afia	New Zealand	38 21 30 S	178 33 45 E	11 58 15 E	
Toledo	Europe	Spain	39 50 0 N	3 20 0 W	0 13 20 W	
Tomsk	Afia	Siberia	56 29 58 N	84 59 30 E	5 39 58 E	
Tonga Tabu, Isle	Afia	Pacific Ocean	21 9 0 S	174 46 0 W	11 39 4 W	
Tonnerre	Europe	France	47 51 8 N	3 58 44 E	0 15 59 E	
Tornea	Europe	Sweden	65 50 50 N	24 12 0 E	1 36 48 E	
Toulon	Europe	France	43 7 24 N	5 56 35 E	0 23 46 E	
Toulouse	Europe	France	43 35 54 N	1 21 3 E	0 5 24 E	
Tournan	Europe	France	48 43 57 N	2 45 15 E	0 11 1 E	
Tours	Europe	France	47 23 44 N	0 41 11 E	0 2 45 E	
Traitor's Head	Afia	Erramanga	18 43 30 S	169 20 30 E	11 17 22 E	
Tripoli	Africa	Barbary	32 53 40 N	13 5 15 E	0 52 21 E	
Troyes	Europe	France	48 18 2 N	4 4 55 E	0 16 20 E	
Turin	Europe	Italy	45 5 20 N	7 40 0 E	0 30 40 E	
Turnagain, Cape	Afia	New Zealand	40 28 0 S	176 56 0 E	11 47 44 E	
Turtle Island	Afia	Pacific Ocean	19 48 45 S	177 57 0 W	11 51 48 W	
Tyrnaw	Europe	Hungary	48 23 30 N	17 33 45 E	1 10 15 E	

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Names of Places.	Quarters.	Seas or Countries.	Latitude.	Longitude.		High Water.
				In Degrees.	In Time.	
			D. M. S.	D. M. S.	H. M. S.	H. M.
ULIATEAH	Asia	Pacific Ocean	16 45 0 S	151 31 0 W	10 6 4 W	
Upsal	Europe	Sweden	59 51 50 N	17 42 15 E	1 10 49 E	
Uraniberg	Europe	Denmark	55 54 15 N	12 52 30 E	0 51 30 E	
Ushant	Europe	France	48 28 30 N	5 4 33 W	0 20 18 W	4 30
VALENCIENNES	Europe	France	50 21 27 N	3 31 40 E	0 14 18 E	
Valery, St.	Europe	France	50 11 13 N	1 37 6 E	0 6 28 E	
Vallery, St.	Europe	France	49 52 12 N	0 41 10 E	0 2 45 E	
Valparaifo	America	Chili	33 2 36 S	72 19 15 W	4 49 17 W	
VanDieman's Road	Asia	Tonga Tabu	21 4 15 S	174 56 24 W	11 39 46 W	
Vannes	Europe	France	47 39 14 N	2 46 26 W	0 11 17 W	
Vence	Europe	France	43 43 16 N	7 7 28 E	0 28 30 E	
Venice	Europe	Italy	45 26 0 N	12 4 30 E	0 48 18 E	
Venus, Point	Asia	Otaheite	17 29 17 S	149 35 45 W	9 58 23 W	10 38
Vera Cruz	America	Mexico	19 12 0 N	97 30 0 W	6 30 0 W	
Verd, Cape	Africa	Negroland	14 45 0 N	17 33 0 W	1 10 12 W	
Verdun	Europe	France	49 9 25 N	5 22 50 E	0 21 31 E	
Verona	Europe	Italy	45 26 26 N	11 18 30 E	0 45 14 E	
Verfailles	Europe	France	48 48 18 N	2 7 10 E	0 8 29 E	
Vienna Observatory	Europe	Hungary	48 12 40 N	16 22 30 E	1 5 30 E	
Vigo	Europe	Spain	42 14 24 N	8 28 0 W	0 33 52 W	
Vincent, St. Cape	Europe	Spain	37 2 0 N	9 2 0 W	0 36 8 W	
Vintimiglia	Europe	Italy	43 53 20 N	7 37 30 E	0 30 30 E	
Virgin Gorda, Fort	America	West Indies	18 18 0 N	64 0 0 W	4 16 0 W	
Virgin, Cape	America	Patagonia	52 23 0 S	67 54 0 W	4 31 36 W	
Viviers	Europe	France	44 28 54 N	4 41 22 E	0 18 45 E	
Vurtzburg	Europe	Franconia	49 46 6 N	10 13 45 E	0 40 55 E	
WAKEFIELD	Europe	England	53 41 0 N	1 33 30 W	0 6 14 W	
Wales, P. of, Fort	America	New Wales	58 47 30 N	94 7 30 W	6 16 30 W	
Wanstead	Europe	England	51 34 10 N	0 2 30 E	0 0 10 E	
Wardhus	Europe	Lapland	70 22 36 N	31 6 45 E	2 4 27 E	
Warsaw	Europe	Poland	52 14 0 N	21 0 30 E	1 24 2 E	
Westman Isles	Europe	Northern Ocean	63 20 30 N	20 27 45 W	1 21 51 W	
Whitsuntide, Isle	Asia	Pacific Ocean	15 44 20 S	168 20 15 E	11 13 21 E	
William, Fort	Asia	Bengal	22 34 45 N	88 29 30 E	5 53 58 E	
Willis's Isles	America	South Georgia	54 0 0 S	38 29 40 W	2 33 59 W	
Wilna	Europe	Poland	54 41 0 N	25 27 30 E	1 41 50 E	
Wittenburg	Europe	Germany	51 49 0 N	12 41 30 E	0 50 46 E	
Wologda	Europe	Russia	59 19 0 N			
Worcester	Europe	England	52 9 30 N	2 0 15 W	0 8 1 W	
Wostak	Europe	Russia	61 15 0 N			
YLO	America	Peru	17 36 15 S	71 13 0 W	4 44 52 W	
York	Europe	England	53 59 0 N	1 6 40 W	0 4 27 W	
York, New	America	Jersey	40 43 0 N	74 9 45 W	4 56 39 W	3 0
Yorkminster	America	Terra del Fuego	55 26 20 S	70 8 0 W	4 40 32 W	

TABLES.

TABLES,

EXHIBITING

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE REAL AND IMAGINARY MONIES
IN ASIA, AFRICA, EUROPE, AND AMERICA.

WITH THEIR

COMPARATIVE VALUES

IN ENGLISH POUNDS, SHILLINGS, PENCE, AND DECIMAL PARTS.

IMAGINARY MONEY, SUCH AS A POUND STERLING, IS DISTINGUISHED BY ITALICS.

ASIA.

ARABIA.

MECCA, MEDINA, MOCHA, &c.

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
A Carat	- - - - -	0	0	0	125
$5\frac{1}{2}$ Carrets	- 1 Caveer	0	0	0	625
7 Carrets	- 1 Comafhee	0	0	0	9
80 Carrets	- 1 Larin	0	0	10	125
18 Comafhees	- 1 Abyfs	0	1	4	2
60 Comafhees	- 1 Piaftee	0	4	6	
80 Caveers	- 1 Dollar	0	4	6	
100 Comafhees	- 1 Sequin	0	7	6	
80 Larins	- 1 Tomond	3	7	6	

PERSIA.

ISPAHAN, ORMUS, GOMBROOM, &c.

A Coz	- - - - -	0	0	0	4
4 Coz	- - - 1 Bifti	0	0	0	6
10 Coz	- - - 1 Shahee	0	0	4	
20 Coz	- - - 1 Mamooda	0	0	8	
25 Coz	- - - 1 Larin	0	0	10	
4 Shahees	- - 1 Abafhee	0	1	4	
5 Abafhees	- - 1 Or	0	6	8	
12 Abafhees	- - 1 Borello	0	16	0	
50 Abafhees	- - 1 Tomond	3	6	8	

MOGUL.

GUZURAT, SURAT, CAMBAY, &c.

A Pecka	- - - - -	0	0	0	25
2 Peckas	- - - 1 Pice	0	0	0	5
4 Pices	- - - 1 Fanam	0	0	1	875
16 Pices	- - - 1 Ana	0	0	7	5
4 Anas	- - - 1 Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	- - - 1 English Crown	0	5	0	
14 Anas	- - - 1 Pagoda	0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	- - - 1 Rupee of gold	1	15	0	

MALABAR.

BOMBAY, &c.

A Budgrook	- - - - -	0	0	0	0337
2 Budgrooks	- - 1 Re	0	0	0	0674
5 Rez	- - - 1 Pice	0	0	0	3375

16 Pices	- - - 1 Laree	0	0	5	4
20 Pices	- - - 1 Quarter	0	0	6	75
240 Rez	- - - 1 Xeraphim	0	1	4	2
4 Quarters	- - 1 Rupee	0	2	3	
14 Quarters	- - 1 Pagoda	0	8	0	
60 Quarters	- - 1 Gold Rupee	1	15	0	

GOA, VISAPOUR, &c.

A Re	- - - - -	0	0	0	0674
2 Rez	- - - 1 Bazaraco	0	0	0	1348
2 Bazaracas	- - 1 Pecka	0	0	0	2696
20 Rez	- - - 1 Vintia	0	0	1	35
4 Vintins	- - - 1 Laree	0	0	5	4
3 Larees	- - - 1 Xeraphim	0	1	4	2
42 Vintins	- - - 1 Tangu	0	4	6	
4 Tangus	- - - 1 Paru	0	18	0	
8 Tangus	- - - 1 Gold rupee	1	15	0	

COROMANDEL.

MADRASS, PONDICHERRY.

A Cash	- - - - -	0	0	0	0375
5 Cash	- - - 1 Viz	0	0	0	1875
2 Viz	- - - 1 Pice	0	0	0	3750
6 Pices	- - - 1 Pical	0	0	2	25
8 Pices	- - - 1 Fanam	0	0	0	3
10 Fanams	- - - 1 Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	- - - 1 English Crown	0	5	0	
36 Fanams	- - - 1 Pagoda	0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	- - - 1 Gold Rupee	1	15	0	

BENGAL.

CALCUTTA, CALICUT, &c.

A Pice	- - - - -	0	0	0	0375
4 Pices	- - - 1 Fanam	0	0	0	625
6 Pices	- - - 1 Viz	0	0	0	9375
12 Pices	- - - 1 Ana	0	0	1	875
10 Anas	- - - 1 Fiano	0	1	6	75
16 Anas	- - - 1 Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	- - - 1 English Crown	0	5	0	
56 Anas	- - - 1 Pagoda	0	8	9	

SIAM.

TABLES OF MONIES.

SIAM.

CAMBODIA, MALACCA, PEGU, BORNEO,
JAVA, SUMATRA, &c.

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
A Cori	- - - - -	0	0	0	000075
300 Cori	- - - 1 Fettee	0	0	0	0535
125 Fettees	- - - 1 Sataleer	0	0	0	7 5
250 Fettees	- - - 1 Sooco	0	1	3	
500 Fettees	- - - 1 Tatal	0	2	6	
900 Fettees	- - - 1 Dollar	0	4	6	
2 Ticals	- - - 1 Rial	0	5	0	
4 Soocos	- - - 1 Ecu	0	5	0	
8 Sataleers	- - - 1 Crown	0	5	0	

CHINA.

PEKIN, NANKIN, CANTON, &c.

A Caxa	- - - - -	0	0	0	08
10 Caxa	- - - 1 Candereen	0	0	0	8
20 Candereens	- - - 1 Mace	0	0	0	8

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
35 Candereens	- 1 Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	- 1 Dollar	0	4	6	
70 Candereens	- 1 Rix-dollar	0	4	4 5	
7 Maces	- 1 Ecu	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	- 1 Crown	0	5	0	
10 Maces	- 1 Tale	0	6	8	

JAPAN.

JEDDO, MEACO, &c.

A Piti	- - - - -	0	0	0	4
20 Pitis	- - - 1 Mace	0	0	0	4
15 Maces	- - - 1 Oz. of Silver	0	4	10	3333
20 Maces	- - - 1 Tale	0	6	8	
30 Maces	- - - 1 Ingot	0	9	8	6666
13 Ounces Silver	- 1 Ounce of Gold	3	3	0	
2 Ounces of Gold	1 Japanese	6	6	0	
2 Japaneses	- 1 Double	12	12	0	
21 Ounces of Gold	1 Catse	66	3	0	

AFRICA.

EGYPT.

CAIRO, ALEXANDRIA, &c.

An Asper	- - - - -	0	0	0	5555
3 Aspers	- - - 1 Medin	0	0	1	75
24 Medins	- - - 1 Italian Ducat	0	3	4	
80 Aspers	- - - 1 Piafre	0	4	9	
96 Aspers	- - - 1 Ecu	0	5	0	
32 Medins	- - - 1 Crown	0	5	0	
200 Aspers	- - - 1 Sultanin	0	10	0	
70 Medins	- - - 1 Pargo Dollar	0	10	6	

4 Doubles	- 1 Dollar	0	4	6
24 Medins	- 1 Silver Chequin	0	3	4
30 Medins	- 1 Dollar	0	4	6
180 Aspers	- 1 Zequin	0	8	10
15 Doubles	- 1 Pistole	0	16	9

MOROCCO.

MEQUINEZ, FEZ, TANGIER, SALLEE,
SANTA CRUZ, &c.

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
An Asper	- - - - -	0	0	0	5555
3 Aspers	- - - 1 Medin	0	0	1	6666
10 Aspers	- - - 1 Rial Old	0	0	6	75
2 Rials	- - - 1 Double	0	1	1	5

A Fluce	- - - - -	0	0	0	0833
24 Fluces	- - - 1 Blanquil	0	0	0	2
4 Blanquils	- - - 1 Ounce	0	0	8	
7 Blanquils	- - - 1 Octavo	0	1	2	
14 Blanquils	- - - 1 Quarto	0	2	4	
2 Quartos	- - - 1 Medio	0	4	8	
28 Blanquils	- - - 1 Dollar	0	4	6	
54 Blanquils	- - - 1 Xequin	0	9	0	
100 Blanquils	- - - 1 Pistole	0	16	9	

BARBARY.

ALGIERS, TUNIS, TRIPOLI, &c.

EUROPE.

GREAT BRITAIN.

LONDON, BRISTOL, EDINBURGH, ABERDEEN, &c.

A Farthing	- - - - -	0	0	0	25
2 Farthings	- - - 1 Halfpenny	0	0	0	5
2 Halfpence	- - - 1 Penny	0	0	1	
6 Pence	- - - 1 Half Shilling	0	0	6	
12 Pence	- - - 1 Shilling	0	1	0	
5 Shillings	- - - 1 Crown	0	5	0	

10 Shillings	- 1 Angel	0	10	0
20 Shillings	- 1 Pound sterling	1	0	0
21 Shillings	- 1 Guinea	1	1	0

IRELAND.

DUBLIN, CORK, LONDONDERRY, &c.

A Farthing	- - - - -	0	0	0	2308
2 Farthings	- - - 1 Halfpenny	0	0	0	4616
					2 Halfpence

TABLES OF MONIES.

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		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
2 Halfpence	- 1 Penny	0	0	0	9230
6½ Pence	- 1 Half Shilling	0	0	6	
12 Pence	- 1 Shilling Irish	0	0	11	0615
13 Pence	- 1 Shilling	0	1	0	
65 Pence	- 1 Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	- 1 Pound Irish	0	18	5	5
22½ Shillings	- 1 Guinea	1	1	0	

AUSTRIAN FLANDERS.

ANTWERP, BRUSSELS, GHENT, OSTEND, &c.

A Penning	- - - - -	0	0	0	0562
4 Penings	- 1 Urche	0	0	0	2248
8 Penings	- 1 Grote	0	0	0	4496
2 Grotos	- 1 Petard	0	0	0	8992
6 Petards	- 1 Scalin	0	0	5	6666
7 Petards	- 1 Scalin	0	0	6	3
40 Grotos	- 1 Florin	0	1	6	
17½ Scalins	- 1 Ducat	0	9	3	
240 Grotos	- 1 Pound Flemish	0	9	0	

UNITED PROVINCES.

AMSTERDAM, ROTTERDAM, MIDDLEBURG, &c.

A Penning	- - - - -	0	0	0	0656
8 Penings	- 1 Grote	0	0	0	5248
2 Grotos	- 1 Stiver	0	0	1	05
6 Stivers	- 1 Scalin	0	0	6	3
20 Stivers	- 1 Guilder	0	1	9	
2 Florins 10 Stivers	- 1 Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	- 1 Dry Guilder	0	5	4	75
3 Florins 3 Stivers	- 1 Silver Ducatoon	0	5	8	16
6 Guilders	- 1 Pound Flemish	0	10	6	
20 Florins	- { 1 Gold Ducat or } Ducatoon	1	16	0	
15 Florins	- { 1 Sovereign Du- } catoon	1	7	0	

GERMANY.

HAMBURG, ALTENA, LUBEC, BREMEN, &c.

A Tyrling	- - - - -	0	0	0	0234
2 Tyrlings	- 1 Sexling	0	0	0	0468
2 Sexlings	- 1 Fening	0	0	0	0936
12 Fenings	- 1 Shilling Lubec	0	0	1	125
16 Shillings	- 1 Marc	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	- 1 Sletch Dollar	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	- 1 Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
4 Marcs	- 1 Silver Ducatoon	0	6	0	
120 Shillings	- 1 Pound Flemish	0	11	3	

HANOVER.

A Fening	- - - - -	0	0	0	1458
3 Fenings	- 1 Dreyer	0	0	0	4374
8 Fenings	- 1 Marien	0	0	1	1666
12 Fenings	- 1 Grosh	0	0	1	75
8 Groshen	- 1 Half Gulden	0	1	2	
16 Groshen	- 1 Gulden	0	2	4	

24 Groshen	- - 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
32 Groshen	- 1 Double Gulden	0	4	8	
4 Guldens	- 1 Ducat	0	9	2	

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

A Heller	- - - - -	0	0	0	073
2 Hellers	- 1 Fening	0	0	0	146
6 Hellers	- 1 Dreyer	0	0	0	438
16 Hellers	- 1 Marien	0	0	1	1666
12 Fenings	- 1 Grosh	0	0	1	75
16 Groshen	- 1 Gould	0	2	4	
24 Groshen	- 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
32 Groshen	- 1 Specie Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Gouds	- 1 Ducat	0	9	4	

BRANDENBURG AND POMERANIA.

A Denier	- - - - -	0	0	0	0073
9 Deniers	- 1 Polchen	0	0	0	0657
18 Deniers	- 1 Grosh	0	0	0	1364
3 Polchens	- 1 Abras	0	0	0	7
20 Groshen	- 1 Marc	0	0	9	3333
30 Groshen	- 1 Florin	0	1	2	
90 Groshen	- 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groshen	- 1 Albertus	0	4	2	
8 Florins	- 1 Ducat	0	9	4	

COLOGN, &c.

A Dute	- - - - -	0	0	0	0875
3 Dutes	- 1 Cruitzer	0	0	0	2625
2 Cruitzers	- 1 Albus	0	0	0	5250
8 Dutes	- 1 Stiver	0	0	0	7
3 Stivers	- 1 Plapert	0	0	2	1
4 Plaperts	- 1 Copituck	0	0	8	4
40 Stivers	- 1 Guilder	0	2	4	
2 Guilders	- 1 Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Guilders	- 1 Ducat	0	9	4	

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

A Fening	- - - - -	0	0	0	1666
2 Fenings	- 1 Dreyer	0	0	0	3332
3 Fenings	- 1 Grosh	0	0	0	4998
4 Fenings	- 1 Cruitzer	0	0	0	6664
2 Cruitzers	- 1 White Grosh	0	0	0	9333
60 Cruitzers	- 1 Gould	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	- 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
2 Gouds	- 1 Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
4 Gouds	- 1 Ducat	0	6	4	

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

A Fening	- - - - -	0	0	0	1666
2 Fenings	- 1 Dreyer	0	0	0	2333
4 Fenings	- 1 Cruitzer	0	0	0	4666
14 Fenings	- 1 Grosh	0	0	1	6333
4 Cruitzers	- 1 Batzen	0	0	1	8666
15 Batzens	- 1 Gould	0	2	4	
	7 1				90 Cruitzers

TABLES OF MONIES.

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
90 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
2 Florins	- - - 1 Specie Dollar	0	4	6	
60 Batzens	- - - 1 Ducat	0	9	4	

FRANCONIA, &c.

1 Fenig	- - - - -	0	0	0	1666
4 Fenings	- - - 1 Cruitzer	0	0	0	4666
3 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Keyser Grosh	0	0	1	4
4 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Batzen	0	0	1	8666
15 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Ort Gold	0	0	7	
60 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Gould	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
2 Goulds	- - - 1 Hard Dollar	0	4	8	
240 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Ducat	0	9	4	

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

CRACOW, WARSAW, DANTZICK, KONINGSBERG, &c.

A Shelon	- - - - -	0	0	0	1555
3 Shelons	- - - 1 Grosh	0	0	0	4666
5 Groshen	- - - 1 Coustic	0	0	2	3333
3 Coustics	- - - 1 Tinfé	0	0	7	
18 Groshen	- - - 1 Ort	0	0	8	4
30 Groshen	- - - 1 Florin	0	1	2	
90 Groshen	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
8 Florins	- - - 1 Ducat	0	9	4	
5 Rix-dollars	- - - 1 Frederic d'or	0	17	6	

LIVONIA.

A Blacken	- - - - -	0	0	0	9777
6 Blackens	- - - 1 Grosh	0	0	0	4666
9 Blackens	- - - 1 Vording	0	0	0	7
2 Groshen	- - - 1 Whiten	0	0	9	333
6 Groshen	- - - 1 Marc	0	0	2	8
30 Groshen	- - - 1 Florin	0	1	2	
90 Groshen	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groshen	- - - 1 Albertus	0	4	2	4
64 Whitens	- - - 1 Copperplate Dollar	0	5	0	

DENMARK AND NORWAY.

COPENHAGEN, BERGEN, DRONTHEIM, &c.

A Skilling	- - - - -	0	0	0	5625
6 Skillings	- - - 1 Duggen	0	0	3	375
16 Skillings	- - - 1 Marc	0	0	9	
20 Skillings	- - - 1 Rix Marc	0	0	11	25
24 Skillings	- - - 1 Rix-Ort	0	1	1	5
4 Marcs	- - - 1 Crown	0	3	0	
6 Marcs	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
11 Marcs	- - - 1 Ducat	0	8	3	
14 Marcs	- - - 1 Hatt Ducat	0	10	6	

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

STOCKHOLM, UPSAL, THORN, &c.

A Runstuck	- - - - -	0	0	0	2333
2 Runstucks	- - - 1 Stiver	0	0	0	39

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
8 Runstucks	- - - 1 Copper Marc	0	0	1	5555
3 Copper Marcs	- - - 1 Silver Marc	0	0	4	6666
4 Copper Marcs	- - - 1 Copper Dollar	0	0	6	2222
9 Copper Marcs	- - - 1 Caroline	0	1	2	
3 Copper Dollars	- - - 1 Silver Dollar	0	1	6	6666
3 Silver Dollars	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
2 Rix-dollars	- - - 1 Ducat	0	9	4	

RUSSIA.

PETERSBURG, MOSCOW, ARCHANGEL, &c.

A Poluska	- - - - -	0	0	0	131
2 Poluskas	- - - 1 Denuka	0	0	0	27
2 Denukas	- - - 1 Copek	0	0	0	4822
3 Copeks	- - - 1 Altin	0	0	1	65
10 Copeks	- - - 1 Grievener	0	0	5	4
25 Copeks	- - - 1 Polpotin	0	1	1	5
50 Copeks	- - - 1 Poltin	0	2	3	
100 Copeks	- - - 1 Rubble	0	4	6	
2 Rubbles	- - - 1 Xervonitz	0	9	0	

SWISS CANTONS.

BASIL, &c.

A Rap	- - - - -	0	0	0	0417
3 Rapen	- - - 1 Fenig	0	0	0	125
4 Fenings	- - - 1 Cruitzer	0	0	0	5
12 Fenings	- - - 1 Sol	0	0	1	5
15 Fenings	- - - 1 Coarse Batzen	0	0	1	875
18 Fenings	- - - 1 Good Batzen	0	0	2	25
20 Sols	- - - 1 Livre	0	2	6	
50 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Gulden	0	2	6	
108 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	4	6	

ST. GALL, &c.

A Heller	- - - - -	0	0	0	0625
2 Hellers	- - - 1 Fenig	0	0	0	25
4 Fenings	- - - 1 Cruitzer	0	0	0	5
12 Fenings	- - - 1 Sol	0	0	1	5
4 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Coarse Batzen	0	0	2	
5 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Good Batzen	0	0	2	5
20 Sols	- - - 1 Livre	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Gould	0	2	6	
102 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Rix-dollar	0	4	3	

BERN, &c.

A Denier	- - - - -	0	0	0	1
4 Deniers	- - - 1 Cruitzer	0	0	0	4
3 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Sol	0	0	1	2
4 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Plapert	0	0	1	6
5 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Gros	0	0	2	
6 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Batzen	0	0	2	4
20 Sols	- - - 1 Livre	0	2	0	
75 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Gulden	0	2	6	
135 Cruitzers	- - - 1 Crown	0	4	6	

GENEVA,

TABLES OF MONIES.

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GENEVA, &c.

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
A Denier	- - - - -	0	0	0	0312
2 Deniers	- - 1 Denier current	0	0	0	0625
12 Deniers	- - 1 Small Sol	0	0	0	375
12 Deniers current	1 Sol current	0	0	0	75
12 Small Sols	- 1 Florin	0	0	4	5
20 Sols current	- 1 Livre current	0	1	3	
10½ Florins	- 1 Patacon	0	3	11	25
15½ Florins	- 1 Croisade	0	5	10	875
24 Florins	- 1 Ducat	0	2	0	

FRANCE.

CAMBRAY, LISLE, VALENCIENNES, &c.

A Denier	- - - - -	0	0	0	0417
12 Deniers	- - 1 Sol	0	0	0	5
15 Deniers	- - 1 Patacon	0	0	0	625
15 Patards	- - 1 Piette	0	0	9	375
20 Sols	- - 1 Livre Tournais	0	0	10	
20 Patards	- - 1 Florin	0	1	0	5
60 Sols	- - 1 Ecu of Exchange	2	6		
10½ Livres	- - 1 Ducat	0	9	3	
24 Livres	- - 1 Louis d'or	1	0	0	

DUNKIRK, ST. OMER's, &c.

A Denier	- - - - -	0	0	0	0417
12 Deniers	- - 1 Sol	0	0	0	5
15 Deniers	- - 1 Patacon	0	0	0	625
15 Sols	- - 1 Piette	0	0	7	5
20 Sols	- - 1 Livre Tournais	0	0	10	
3 Livres	- - 1 Ecu of Exchange	2	6		
24 Livres	- - 1 Louis d'or	1	0	0	
24 Livres	- - 1 Guinea	1	1	0	
30½ Livres	- - 1 Moeda	1	7	0	

PARIS, LYONS, BOURDEAUX, BAYONNE, &c.

A Denier	- - - - -	0	0	0	0417
3 Deniers	- - 1 Liard	0	0	0	125
2 Liards	- - 1 Dardene	0	0	0	25
12 Deniers	- - 1 Sol	0	0	0	5
20 Sols	- - 1 Livre Tournais	0	0	10	
60 Sols	- - 1 Ecu of Exchange	2	6		
6 Livres	- - 1 Ecu	0	5	0	
10 Livres	- - 1 Pistole	0	3	4	
24 Livres	- - 1 Louis d'or	1	0	0	

SPAIN.

MADRID, CADIZ, SEVILLE, &c. NEW PLATE.

A Marvadie	- - - - -	0	0	0	159
2 Marvadies	- - 1 Quartil	0	0	0	3308
34 Marvadies	- - 1 Rial	0	0	5	375
2 Rials	- - 1 Pistarine	0	0	10	75
8 Rials	- - 1 Pistole of Ex.	0	3	7	
310 Rials	- - 1 Dollar	0	4	6	
75 Marvadies	- - 1 Ducat of Ex.	0	4	11	5
32 Rials	- - 1 Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4	
36 Rials	- - 1 Pistole	0	16	9	

MALAGA, GIBRALTAR, &c. VELON.

		£.	s.	d.	Pts.
A Marvadie	- - - - -	0	0	0	09
2 Marvadies	- - 1 Ochavo	0	0	0	17
4 Marvadies	- - 1 Quartil	0	0	0	34
34 Marvadies	- - 1 Rial Velon	0	0	2	875
15 Rials	- - 1 Pistole of Ex.	0	3	7	
512 Marvadies	- - 1 Pistole	0	3	7	
60 Rials	- - 1 Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4	
2084 Marvadies	- - 1 Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4	
70 Rials	- - 1 Pistole	0	16	9	

BARCELONA, SARAGOSSA, VALENTIA, &c. OLD PLATE.

A Marvadie	- - - - -	0	0	0	2109
16 Marvadies	- - 1 Soldo	0	0	3	375
2 Soldos	- - 1 Rial Old Plate	0	0	6	75
20 Soldos	- - 1 Libra	0	5	7	5
24 Soldos	- - 1 Ducat	0	6	9	
16 Soldos	- - 1 Dollar	0	4	6	
22 Soldos	- - 1 Ducat	0	6	2	25
21 Soldos	- - 1 Ducat	0	5	10	875
60 Soldos	- - 1 Pistole	0	16	9	

PORTUGAL.

LISBON, OPORTO, &c.

A Ree	- - - - -	0	0	0	0675
10 Rees	- - 1 Half Vintin	0	0	0	675
20 Rees	- - 1 Vintin	0	0	1	35
5 Vintins	- - 1 Testoon	0	0	6	75
4 Testoons	- - 1 Crusade of Ex.	0	2	3	
24 Vintins	- - 1 New Crusade	0	2	8	4
10 Testoons	- - 1 Milree	0	5	7	5
48 Testoons	- - 1 Moldore	1	7	0	
64 Testoons	- - 1 Joaneffe	1	16	0	

ITALY.

ROME, &c.

A Quatrini	- - - - -	0	0	0	13
5 Quatrini	- - 1 Bayoc	0	0	0	75
8 Bayocs	- - 1 Julio	0	0	6	
10 Bayocs	- - 1 Stamped Julio	0	0	7	5
24 Bayocs	- - 1 Testoon	0	1	6	
0 Julios	- - 1 Crown current	0	5	0	
12 Julios	- - 1 Crown stamped	0	6	0	
18 Julios	- - 1 Chequin	0	9	0	
31 Julios	- - 1 Pistole	0	15	6	

NAPLES, &c.

1 Quatrini	- - - - -	0	0	0	1333
3 Quatrini	- - 1 Grain	0	0	0	4
10 Grains	- - 1 Carlin	0	0	4	
40 Quatrini	- - 1 Paulo	0	0	5	3333
20 Grains	- - 1 Tarin	0	0	8	
40 Grains	- - 1 Testoon	0	1	4	
100 Grains	- - 1 Ducat of Ex.	0	3	4	
23 Tarins	- - 1 Pistole	0	15	4	
25 Tarins	- - 1 Spanish Pistole	1	16	9	

SICILY.

TABLES OF MONIES.

SICILY AND MALTA, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	Pts.
A Pichila	- - - - -		0	0	0	0256
6 Pichili	- - 1 Grain	- - -	0	0	0	1818
8 Pichili	- - 1 Ponti	- - -	0	0	0	2051
10 Grains	- - 1 Carlin	- - -	0	0	1	5833
20 Grains	- - 1 Tarin	- - -	0	3	0	08
6 Tarins	- - 1 Florin of Ex.	- - -	0	1	6	4615
13 Tarins	- - 1 Ducat of Ex.	- - -	0	3	4	
60 Carlins	- - 1 Ounce	- - -	0	7	8	3333
2 Ounces	- - 1 Pistole	- - -	0	15	4	

BOLOGNA, RAVENNA, &c.

A Quatrini	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	1	
6 Quatrini	-	-	1	Bayoc	-	-	0	0	0	6
10 Bayocs	-	-	1	Julio	-	-	0	0	0	6
20 Bayocs	-	-	1	Lire	-	-	0	1	0	
3 Julios	-	-	1	Teftoon	-	-	0	1	6	
85 Bayocs	-	-	1	Scudi of Ex.	-	-	0	4	3	
105 Bayocs	-	-	1	Ducatoon	-	-	0	5	3	
100 Bayocs	-	-	1	Crown	-	-	0	5	0	
31 Julios	-	-	1	Pistole	-	-	0	15	6	

VENICE, &c.

A Picole	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	0277
12 Picoli	-	-	1 Soldi	-	-	0	0	0	3333
6½ Soldi	-	-	1 Gros	-	-	0	0	2	1666
18 Soldi	-	-	1 Jule	-	-	0	0	6	
20 Soldi	-	-	1 Lire	-	-	0	0	6	6666
3 Jules	-	-	1 Teftoon	-	-	0	1	6	
124 Soldi	-	-	1 Ducat current	-	-	0	3	5	3333
24 Gros	-	-	1 Ducat of Ex.	-	-	0	4	4	
17 Lires	-	-	1 Chequin	-	-	0	9	2	

LEGHORN, FLORENCE, &c.

1 Denari	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	0347
4 Denari	-	-	1	Quatrini	-	-	0	0	0 1308
12 Denari	-	-	1	Soldi	-	-	0	0	0 3624
5 Quatrini	-	-	1	Craca	-	-	0	0	0 7
8 Cracas	-	-	1	Quilo	-	-	0	0	5 5555
20 Soldi	-	-	1	Lire	-	-	0	0	8 3333
6 Lires	-	-	1	Piafre of Ex.	-	-	0	4	2
7½ Lires	-	-	1	Ducat	-	-	0	5	2 5
22 Lires	-	-	1	Pistole	-	-	0	15	6

MILAN, MODENA, PARMA, PAVIA, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	Pts.
A Denari	- - - - -		0	0	0	0365
3 Denari	- - 1 Quatrini	- - -	0	0	0	1875
12 Denari	- - 1 Soldi	- - -	0	0	0	44
20 Soldi	- - 1 Lire	- - -	0	0	8	7805
115 Soldi	- - 1 Scudi current	- - -	0	4	2	5
117 Soldi	- - 1 Scudi of Ex.	- - -	0	4	3	
6 Lires	- - 1 Philip	- - -	0	4	4	5
22 Lires	- - 1 Pistole	- - -	0	16	0	
23 Lires	- - 1 Spanish Pistole	- - -	0	16	9	

SAVOY AND SARDINIA, &c.

A Denari	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	0625
3 Denari	-	-	1	Quatrini	-	0	0	0 1875
12 Denari	-	-	1	Soldi	-	0	0	0 75
12 Soldi	-	-	1	Florin	-	0	0	9
20 Soldi	-	-	1	Lire	-	0	1	3
6 Florins	-	-	1	Scudi	-	0	4	6
7 Florins	-	-	1	Ducatoon	-	0	5	3
13 Lires	-	-	1	Pistole	-	0	16	3
16 Lires	-	-	1	Louis d'or	-	1	0	0

GENOA, CORSICA, &c.

A Denari	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	0358
12 Denari	-	-	1 Soldi	-	-	0	0	0	43
4 Soldi	-	-	1 Chevalet	-	-	0	0	1	72
20 Soldi	-	-	1 Lire	-	-	0	0	8	6
30 Soldi	-	-	1 Testoon	-	-	0	1	0	
5 Lires	-	-	1 Croisade	-	-	0	3	7	
115 Soldi	-	-	1 Pezzo of Ex.	-	-	0	4	2	
6 Testoons	-	-	1 Genouine	-	-	0	6	2	
20 Lires	-	-	1 Pitole	-	-	0	14	4	

TURKEY.

MOREA, CANDIA, CYPRUS, &c.

A Mangar	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	0	15	
4 Mangars	-	-	1	Asper	-	-	0	0	0	6
3 Aspers	-	-	1	Parac	-	-	0	0	1	8
5 Aspers	-	-	1	Bestic	-	-	0	0	3	
10 Aspers	-	-	1	Ofic	-	-	0	0	6	
20 Aspers	-	-	1	Solota	-	-	0	1	0	
80 Aspers	-	-	1	Piafre	-	-	0	4	0	
100 Aspers	-	-	1	Caragrouch	-	-	0	5	0	
10 Solotas	-	-	1	Xeriff	-	-	0	10	0	

AMERICA.

AMERICA:

NOVA SCOTIA, AND THE THIRTEEN
UNITED STATES.

	£.	s.	d.
A Penny - - - - -	0	0	1
12 Pence - - - 1 Shilling - -	0	1	0
20 Shillings - - 1 Pound - -	1	0	0

CANADA, CAYENNE, &c.

A Denier - - - - -	0	0	0
12 Deniers - - - 1 Sol - - -	0	0	0
20 Sols - - - - 1 Livre - -	0	0	0

On the American Continent the value of the currency rises or sinks in proportion to the plenty or scarcity of the gold and silver coins imported.

In the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish dominions, both on the Continent and in the West Indies, the same denominations of money are used as in the parent states.

BRITISH WEST INDIES.

	£.	s.	d.	Pts.
A Halfpenny - - - - -	0	0	0	3562
2 Halfpence - - - 1 Penny -	0	0	0	7124
7½ Pence - - - - 1 Bit - -	0	0	5	375
12 Pence - - - - 1 Shilling -	0	0	8	55
75 Pence - - - - 1 Dollar -	0	4	6	
7 Shillings - - - 1 Crown -	0	5	0	
20 Shillings - - - 1 Pound -	0	14	3	
24 Shillings - - - 1 Pistole -	0	16	9	
30 Shillings - - - 1 Guinea -	1	1	0	

FRENCH WEST INDIES.

A Half Sol - - - - -	0	0	0	183
2 Half Sols - - - 1 Sol - -	0	0	0	366
7½ Sols - - - - 1 Half Scalin -	0	0	2	69
15 Sols - - - - 1 Scalin - -	0	0	5	375
20 Sols - - - - 1 Livre - -	0	0	7	3125
7 Livres - - - - 1 Dollar -	0	4	6	
8 Livres - - - - 1 Ecu - -	0	4	10	5
26 Livres - - - 1 Pistole -	0	16	9	
32 Livres - - - 1 Louis-d'or -	1	0	0	

TABLE OF MEASURES OF LENGTH,

OF THE

PRINCIPAL PLACES IN EUROPE, COMPARED WITH THE ENGLISH YARD.

	Eng. Yards		Eng. Yards
100 Aulnes or Ells of England - - -	125	100 Canes of Montpellier and Marfeilles	214,25
100 Aulnes of Holland - - - - -	75	100 Canes of Toulouse - - - - -	200
100 Aulnes of Brabant or Antwerp - -	76	100 Canes of Genoa of nine Palms -	245,25
100 Aulnes of France - - - - -	128,25	100 Canes of Rome - - - - -	227,25
100 Aulnes of Hamburgh, Francfort, &c.	62,5	100 Varas of Spain - - - - -	93,75
100 Aulnes of Breslau - - - - -	60	100 Varas of Portugal - - - - -	123
100 Aulnes of Dantzick - - - - -	66,75	100 Cavidas of Portugal - - - - -	75
100 Aulnes of Bergen - - - - -	68,25	100 Brasses of Venice - - - - -	73,5
100 Aulnes of Sweden - - - - -	65,25	100 Brasses of Bergamo, &c. - - -	71,25
100 Aulnes of St. Gall for Linens - -	87,5	100 Brasses of Florence and Leghorn -	64
100 Aulnes of St. Gall for Cloths - -	67	100 Brasses of Milan - - - - -	58,5
100 Aulnes of Geneva - - - - -	124,25		

N. B. The English Foot is to that of Paris as 1000 to 1068; to that of Dantzick as 1000 to 944; to that of Venice as 1000 to 1162; to the ancient Greek as 1000 to 1007; and to the ancient Roman as 1000 to 970.

TABLE OF WEIGHTS,

OF THE

PRINCIPAL PLACES IN EUROPE, COMPARED WITH THE ENGLISH POUND AVOIRDUPOISE.

lb. Eng.	lb. oz.		lb. Eng.	lb. oz.	
102 -	91	8 of Paris and Amsterdam, &c.	100 -	137	4 of Genoa
100 -	96	8 of Antwerp and Brabant	100 -	132	11 of Leghorn
100 -	88	of Rouen	100 -	153	11 of Milan
100 -	106	of Lyons	100 -	152	of Venice
100 -	90	9 of Rochelle	100 -	154	of Naples
100 -	107	11 of Toulouse	100 -	97	of Seville, Cadiz, &c.
100 -	113	of Marfeilles	100 -	104	13 of Portugal
100 -	81	7 of Geneva	100 -	96	5 of Liege
100 -	93	5 of Hamburgh	100 -	112	10½ of Russia
100 -	89	7 of Francfort, &c.	100 -	107½	of Sweden
100 -	96	1 of Leipzig, &c.	100 -	89	8 of Denmark

A CHRONOLOGICAL

A
CHRONOLOGICAL LIST
 OF
REMARKABLE EVENTS;

INCLUDING BIOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNTS OF EMINENT AND INGENIOUS MEN.
 FROM THE CREATION OF THE WORLD TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Before Christ.

- 4004 **T**HE creation of the world.
 4003 The birth of Cain, the first born of woman.
 3875 Abel slain by his brother Cain, being the first who suffered death.
 2348 The world destroyed by a deluge, which lasted 377 days.
 2247 The tower of Babel built, and the universal language confounded.
 2234 Astronomy began to be studied at Babylon, the first nursery of learning and science.
 2188 Misraim founded the Egyptian monarchy, which continued 1663 years.
 2059 Ninus founded the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted upwards of 1000 years.
 1921 God's covenant with Abraham established on entering Canaan.
 1897 Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed.
 1897 Inachus founded the kingdom of Argos in Greece.
 1822 Letters first discovered, by Memnon the Egyptian.
 1715 Prometheus first obtained fire from the collision of flints.
 1574 Aaron the high-priest of the Israelites born.
 1571 Moses the law-giver of the Israelites born.
 1556 The kingdom of Athens founded by Cærops.
 1546 The kingdom of Troy founded by Scamander.
 1493 The Phœnician letters introduced into Greece by Cadmus.
 1491 Moses received his divine legation, and conducted the Israelites out of Egypt.
 1485 Danaus navigated the first ship which had ever appeared in Greece.
 1453 The Olympic Games instituted at Olympia in Greece.
 1451 Moses died, having completed the Pentateuch in the preceding year.
 The Children of Israel settled in Canaan, under Joshua.
 1406 Iron first discovered, by burning the woods on Mount Ida in Greece.
 1198 The rape of Helen, which gave rise to the Trojan war.
 1183 The destruction of Troy.
 907 Homer flourished; being the first prophane writer whose works are still extant, and the illustrious inventor of epic poetry.
 906 Hesiod, the Greek poet, flourished.
 894 Gold and silver money first coined, at Argos, in Greece.
 884 Lycurgus, the celebrated legislator of Sparta, died.
 869 Carthage, in Africa, founded by Queen Dido.
 814 The kingdom of Macedon established.
 753 Romulus the first King of the Romans built Rome, which began the Roman æra:
 720 Salmanasar, King of Assyria, took Samaria, and carried the ten tribes of Israel into captivity.
 The first lunar eclipse on record.
 628 Byzantium, the modern Constantinople, built by a colony of Athenians.
 604 A Phœnician vessel having set sail from the Red Sea, by order of Necho, King of Egypt, coasted round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.

600 Thales

- 600 Thales of Miletus introduced astronomy into Greece.
Anaximander the disciple of Thales invented maps and globes.
- 599 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, was in high repute.
- 597 Jehoiakin, King of Judah, carried away captive to Babylon.
- 562 The first comedy was acted at Athens, on a scaffold, by Sufarian and Dolon.
- 556 Esop, the Greek fabulist, died.
- 548 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer, died.
- 538 The kingdom of Babylon finished by Cyrus, the first king of Persia.
- 534 Thespis performed the first tragedy at Athens, in a waggon.
- 526 A public library founded at Athens.
- 515 The second temple of Jerusalem completed, under Darius king of Persia.
- 509 Monarchical government abolished at Rome, by the expulsion of Tarquin.
- 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave rise to the Persian invasion.
- 497 Pythagoras, the founder of the Pythagorean philosophy, died.
- 486 Æschylus, the Greek poet, first gained the prize of tragedy.
- 481 Xerxes the Great, King of Persia, commenced his expedition against Greece.
- 474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet, died.
- 458 Ezra sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews.
- 456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet, died.
- 454 The Romans sent to Athens for the laws of Solon.
- 451 The Decemvirs were created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables ratified.
- 435 Pindar, the celebrated Greek lyric poet, died.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament was finished about this period, by Malachi, the last of the prophets.
- 413 Herodotus of Greece, the first writer of prophane history.
- 407 Aristophanes, the celebrated Greek comic poet, flourished.
- Euripides, the Greek tragic poet, died.
- 406 Sophocles, the Greek tragic poet, died.
- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece, who introduced a belief in the immortality of the soul, and a state of rewards and punishments, was put to death by the Athenians.
- 391 Thucydides, the Grecian historian, died.
- 361 Hippocrates, the illustrious physician of Greece, died.
- Democritus, the cynic philosopher, died.
- 359 Xenophon, the philosopher and historian, died.
- 348 Plato, the disciple of Socrates, and supporter of his doctrines, died.
- 336 Isocrates, the Greek orator, died.
- 332 Aristotle, the sublime philosopher, and disciple of Plato, died.
- 331 Alexander the Great conquered Darius, and ravaged the east.
- 323 Alexander the Great died at Babylon.
- 313 Demosthenes, the illustrious orator of Greece, poisoned himself.
- 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, died.
- 285 Theocritus, the inventor of pastoral poetry, flourished.
- Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical æra.
- 284 The Septuagint completed by the seventy-two interpreters, under the auspices of Ptolemy Philadelphus, King of Egypt.
- 277 Euclid, of Alexandria, the celebrated mathematician, flourished.
- 270 Epicurus, who gave rise to the Epicurean philosophy in Greece, died.
- 269 The first silver coinage at Rome.
- 264 The chronology of the Arundelian Marbles composed.
- The first Punic war began, which continued 23 years.
- Xeno, the founder of the stoic philosophy, died.
- 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet, died.
- 218 The second Punic war began, and continued 17 years.
- 208 Archimedes, the famous geometrician of Greece, died.

CHRONOLOGICAL LIST.

- 190 The Roman army first entered Asia, and introduced the luxury of the East.
- 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet, died.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome.
- 163 The government of the Maccabees commenced in Judea, and continued 126 years.
- 159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet, died.
- 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher, died.
- 146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, razed to the ground by the Romans.
- 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
- 124 Polybius of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian, died.
- 54 Lucretius, the Roman poet, died.
- 52 Julius Cæsar made his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia, between Cæsar and Pompey.
The Alexandrian library accidentally burnt.
- 45 The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
- 44 Julius Cæsar, the first Roman emperor, slain in the senate, by Brutus and his colleagues.
Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, flourished.
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, flourished.
- 43 Cicero, the illustrious Roman orator and philosopher, put to death.
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, flourished.
- 34 Sallust, the Roman historian, died.
- 31 The battle of Actium fought.
- 30 Alexandria in Egypt taken by Octavius, and Egypt reduced to be a Roman province.
Dionysius, of Hallicarnassus, the Roman historian, flourished.
- 19 Virgil, the illustrious Roman poet, died.
- 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman lyric poets, died.
- 8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet, died.

The city of Rome was fifty miles in circumference, and contained 463,000 men able to bear arms.

The temple of Janus shut up by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and Jesus Christ born, Monday, December 25.

Anno Christi.

- 17 Livy, the Roman historian, died.
- 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet, died in exile.
- 20 Celsus, the Roman physician and philosopher, flourished.
- 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer, died.
- 33 Jesus Christ having accomplished his ministry on earth, was crucified by the Jews on Friday, the 3d of April.
Phædrus, the Roman fabulist, died.
- 36 The conversion of St. Paul.
- 39 St. Matthew wrote his gospel.
Pontius Pilate became his own executioner.
- 40 The appellation of Christians was first given to the followers of Christ at Antioch.
- 43 The expedition of Marcus Claudius into Britain.
- 44 St. Mark wrote his gospel.
- 45 Paterculus, the Roman historian, flourished.
- 49 London founded by the Romans.
- 51 Caractacus, the British king, carried to Rome in chains.
- 52 The council of the Apostles held at Jerusalem.
- 55 St. Luke wrote his gospel.
- 59 Nero, the Roman emperor, put his mother and brothers to death.
Nero persecuted the Druids in Britain.
- 61 Boadicea, the Queen of Britain, defeated the Romans; but was soon afterwards conquered by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
- 62 Persius, the Roman satiric poet, died.

- 63 The Acts of the Apostles written.
Christianity supposed to have been introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples.
- 64 Rome set on fire; which induced Nero to commence his first persecution against the Christians.
Quintus Curtius, the historian of Alexander the Great, flourished.
Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death by Nero.
- 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, put to death by Nero.
- 67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
- 70 Jerusalem taken by Titus, the Roman general, and razed to the ground.
- 79 Pliny the Elder, the Roman naturalist, died.
- 83 The philosophers banished Rome by Domitian.
- 85 Julius Agricola built a line of forts between the Forth and the Clyde.
- 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian, died.
- 94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, flourished.
- 95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate, died.
- 96 St. John wrote his Revelation.
Statius, the Roman epic poet, died.
- 97 St. John wrote his Gospel.
- 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, flourished.
- 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian, died.
- 104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet, died.
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet, died.
- 116 Pliny the Younger, the orator, died.
- 117 Suetonius, the Roman historian, died.
- 119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer, died.
- 121 The Caledonians recovered from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland, on which the Emperor Adrian built a wall between Newcastle and Carlisle.
- 128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet, died.
- 139 Justin wrote his first apology for the Christians.
- 140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, flourished.
- 150 Justin, the Roman historian, flourished.
- 161 Arrian, the Roman philosopher and historian, flourished.
- 167 Justin, of Samaria, the most ancient Christian writer after the apostles, died.
- 180 Lucian, the Roman philologer, died.
- 193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician, died.
- 200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, flourished.
- 217 The Septuagint said to have been found in a cask.
- 222 The Roman empire began to feel a rapid decline; and the Goths received an annual tribute to forbear their invasions.
- 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, flourished.
- 254 Origen, a Christian father of Alexandria, died.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, flourished.
- 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom.
- 260 Valerian was taken prisoner, and stayed alive, by Sapor King of Persia.
- 273 Longinus, the illustrious critic and orator, put to death by Aurelian.
- 274 Silk first imported from India.
- 291 Two emperors, and two Cæsars, marched to defend the four quarters of the empire.
- 306 Constantine the Great began his reign.
- 308 Cardinals first ordained.
- 313 The tenth and last persecution ended, by an edict of Constantine.
- 314 Three bishops sent from Britain to assist at the council of Arles.
- 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, flourished.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when the famous Nicene creed was composed.

325 Constantine

CHRONOLOGICAL LIST.

691

- 328 Constantine removed the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which was then named Constantinople.
- 331 Constantine ordered all the Pagan temples to be destroyed.
- 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, the founder of the Arian sect, died.
- 342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer, died.
- 363 Julian the Apostate vainly endeavoured to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire was divided into the Eastern and Western empires.
- 368 London surrounded by a wall.
- 379 Basil, Bishop of Cæsarea, died.
- 397 Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, died.
- 400 Bells invented, by Paulinus Bishop of Campania.
- 404 Fergus revived the kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland.
- 406 The Vandals, Alans and Suevi, ravaged France and Spain.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi Goths.
- 412 The Vandals commence their government in Spain.
- 415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian, died.
- 420 The kingdom of France established on the Lower Rhine by Pharamond.
- 426 The Romans finally withdrew their troops from Britain.
- 428 Eutropius, the Roman historian, died.
- 447 Attila, surnamed the Scourge of God, ravaged the Roman empire.
- 449 Vortigern, King of the Britons, invited the Saxons into Britain, as allies.
- 455 The Saxons having repulsed the Scots and Picts, began to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The Western Empire finished by the irruption of the Goths, Vandals, and other barbarous nations; under whom literature was extinguished, and the monuments of learning were destroyed.
- 496 Clovis, King of France, baptized.
- 508 Arthur began his reign over Britain.
- 513 Constantinople besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet was burnt by a speculum of brass.
- 516 The computation of time by the Christian æra, introduced by Dionysius, a monk.
- 524 Boethius, the Roman poet and philosopher, died.
- 529 Procopius, of Cæsarea, the Roman historian, died.
- 555 Silk first manufactured in Europe.
- 557 A dreadful plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa; which lasted 50 years.
- 581 Latin ceased to be a living language.
- 596 Augustine, the monk, arrived in England, with forty of his fraternity.
- 606 The pope began to assume very extensive power from the concessions of Phocas, Emperor of the East.
- 622 Mahomet fled from Mecca to Medina, in the 44th year of his age; from which æra his followers compute their time, under the name of the Hegira, or Flight.
- 637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
- 640 Alexandria in Egypt taken by Omar, Caliph of the Saracens, and the magnificent library burnt.
- 664 Glass invented in England, by Benalt, a monk.
- 685 The Britons, after an obstinate struggle of nearly 150 years, totally vanquished by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
- 713 The Saracens conquered Spain.
- 726 The controversy respecting images began, and occasioned many insurrections.
- 735 Bede, commonly called Venerable Bede, a priest of Northumberland, and a famous historian, died.
- 748 The computation of time from the birth of Christ, introduced into history.
- 762 The city of Bagdat, on the Tigris, made the capital of the caliphs.
- 800 Charlemagne, King of France, founded the empire of Germany, and endeavoured to restore learning in Europe.

826 Harold,

- 826 Harold, King of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for embracing Christianity.
- 828 Egbert, King of Wessex, united the heptarchy under the name of England.
- 838 The Scots and Picts fought a decisive battle, in which the former prevailed.
- 867 The Danes commenced their ravages in England.
- 896 Alfred the Great, having subdued the Danish invaders, composed his body of laws, and divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings.
The university of Oxford founded by Alfred.
- 901 Alfred died.
- 915 The university of Cambridge founded.
- 936 The Saracen empire divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.
- 975 Pope Boniface deposed and banished.
- 979 Coronation oaths said to have been first used in England.
- 991 The Arabic numerals first substituted in Europe for the letters of the alphabet.
- 996 The empire of Germany rendered elective, by Otho III.
- 999 Boleslaus, the first king of Poland.
- 1000 Paper first fabricated of cotton rags.
- 1005 The ancient churches rebuilt, after a new mode of architecture.
- 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
- 1017 Canute, King of Denmark, obtained possession of England.
- 1040 The Danes, after various defeats, expelled from Scotland.
- 1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
- 1043 The Turks became formidable, and possessed themselves of Persia.
- 1057 Malcolm III, King of Scotland, killed Macbeth the usurper, at Dunsmine.
- 1065 The Turks took Jerusalem from the Saracens.
- 1066 The battle of Hastings, between Harold and William Duke of Normandy; in which the former was slain, when the latter became king of England, with the title of Conqueror.
- 1070 William the Conqueror introduced the feudal law.
Musical notes first invented.
- 1075 Henry IV, Emperor of Germany, walked barefooted to the Pope, about the end of January, by way of penance.
- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1080 Doomday Book began to be compiled, and was finished in six years.
The Tower of London built by William the Conqueror.
- 1091 The Moors possessed themselves of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land.
- 1110 Edgar Etheling, the last of the Saxon princes, died in a private station.
- 1118 The order of Knights Templars instituted.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1163 London Bridge first built of stone.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights instituted in Germany.
- 1170 Paper from linen rags first introduced.
- 1172 Henry II, King of England, took possession of Ireland.
- 1176 England divided by Henry II. into six circuits.
- 1180 Private houses began to be ornamented with glass windows.
- 1181 Glanville digested the laws of England.
- 1182 The kings of England and France held the stirrups of Pope Alexander III. while he mounted his horse.
- 1186 A remarkable conjunction of the sun and moon, and all the planets, in Libra, happened during the month of September.
- 1192 Richard I, King of England, defeated Saladin at the battle of A scalon, in Judea.
- 1194 Richard I. used '*Dieu, et mon droit*!' for his motto.
- 1200 Chimnies unknown in England.
Surnames began to be used among the nobility.
- 1208 London was incorporated, and obtained it's first charter from King John.
- 1215 Magna Charta signed by King John and the English barons, in Runny Mead.

- 1215 The Court of Common Pleas established.
- 1227 The Tartars ravage all the Saracen empire.
- 1233 The houses in London, and other European cities, thatched with straw.
- 1253 Alonzo, King of Castile, composed the famous astronomical tables.
- 1258 The Tartars took Bagdat, and finished the empire of the Saracens.
- 1259 Matthew Paris, a monk of St. Alban's; and author of a history of England, died.
- 1264 The Commons of England, according to some writers, were first summoned to attend parliament.
- 1269 The Hamburgh Company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The present Austrian family began to reign in Germany.
- 1282 Edward I. united Wales to England, having killed Llewellyn Prince of Wales.
- 1284 Edward II. born at Caernarvon; being the first who bore the title of Prince of Wales.
- 1285 Twelve candidates for the kingdom of Scotland submitted their respective claims to the arbitration of Edward King of England.
- 1292 Roger, commonly called Friar Bacon, a native of Somersetshire, the famous natural philosopher, died.
- 1293 A regular succession of English parliaments commenced.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire began, under Ottoman, in Bithynia.
Spoons, knives and forks, candles, and wine, esteemed as luxuries; the latter being sold as a cordial by apothecaries.
- 1302 Givias, of Naples, invented, or rather improved, the mariner's compass.
- 1307 The Swiss cantons first established.
- 1308 John Jordun, a priest of Meernshire, author of the history of Scotland, died.
- The Pope's removal to Avignon in France.
- 1310 The society of Lincoln's Inn established.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn fought between Edward II. and Robert Bruce.
The Cardinals set fire to the conclave, and separate.
- 1320 Gold first coined in Europe.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settled at York; 'Which,' says Edward III. 'may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.'
- 1337 The first comet described with astronomical precision.
- 1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; and six years afterwards Edward III. had four pieces of cannon at the battle of Cressy, which contributed to gain the victory.
Painting in oil first used, by John Vaneck.
The Heralds College instituted in England.
- 1344 Edward III. first used patents in the creation of titles.
Gold first coined in England.
- 1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England, by Edward III.
- 1352 The Turks first entered Europe.
- 1354 Money, till this period, the same in Scotland as in England.
- 1356 Edward the Black Prince took John King of France and his son, at the battle of Poitiers.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered, by Edward III.
- 1362 John Wickliffe, an Englishman, about this time, combated the errors of the Church of Rome, with great acuteness and spirit. His followers were called Lollards.
Law proceedings changed from French to English.
- 1386 Windsor castle built by Edward III.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn, between Hotspur and Douglas.
- 1391 Cards invented in France, for the amusement of the French king.
- 1399 Westminster Abbey and Hall rebuilt and enlarged.
Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.
- 1400 Geoffrey Chaucer, the father of English poetry, died.
- 1402 John Gower, a native of Wales, and a poet, died.
- 1410 Guildhall, London, built.
- 1413 The university of St. Andrew's, in Scotland, founded.

- 1415 Henry V. of England, gained the battle of Agincourt.
- 1428 Joan d'Arc gave the first blow to the English power in France, at the siege of Orleans.
- 1430 Lamentius, of Haerleim, invented the art of printing, which he practised with separate wooden types. Guttenburg afterwards invented cut metal types; and Peter Schoeffer brought the art to perfection, by discovering the mode of casting the types in matrices; William Corseillis began to print with wooden types at Oxford in 1468; and William Caxton introduced the art of printing with fusile types in 1474.
- 1446 The library of the Vatican founded at Rome.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which finished the Eastern Empire, 1123 years from its establishment by Constantine the Great, and 2206 years from the building of Rome.
- 1454 The university of Glasgow founded.
- 1460 The art of engraving and etching invented.
- 1477 The university of Aberdeen founded.
- 1483 Richard III. King of England, and last of the Plantagenets, killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry VII. which terminated the contests between the houses of York and Lancaster, after a contest of 30 years, and the losing 100,000 men.
- 1486 Henry established fifty yeomen of the guards, being the first standing army in England.
- 1489 Bartholomew Columbus first introduced maps and charts into England.
- 1491 William Grocyn publicly taught the Greek language at Oxford.
- The Moors in Spain entirely subdued by Ferdinand King of Castile.
- 1492 Columbus, a native of Genoa, in the service of Spain, discovered America.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sailed to India by the Cape of Good Hope.
- South America discovered by Americus Vespasianus, who had the honour of giving his name to an entire quarter of the globe.
- 1499 Cabot discovered North America for Henry VII.
- 1500 Maximilian divided the empire of Germany into six circles.
- 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were till then imported.
- 1512 Maximilian added four more circles to the divisions of the German empire.
- 1513 James IV. of Scotland, killed at the battle of Flodden, with the flower of his nobility.
- 1517 Luther began the Reformation.
- Egypt conquered by the Turks.
- 1520 Henry VIII. received the title of Defender of the Faith, from the Pope.
- 1534 The Reformation began in England under Henry VIII.
- 1535 Sir Thomas More beheaded.
- 1537 Religious houses in England dissolved.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorized.
- 1540 Cannon began to be used in men of war about this period.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the King of France; Pins first used in England, skewers having till then supplied the want of them.
- 1544 Lands let in England at one shilling per annum an acre.
- 1545 The famous council of Trent began, and continued 18 years.
- 1549 Lord-lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Horse Guards instituted in England.
- 1552 John Leland, the antiquarian, died.
- 1555 The Russian Company established in England.
- 1560 The reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
- 1568 Roger Ascham, of Yorkshire, the philologist, died.
- 1569 The Royal Exchange built by Sir Thomas Gresham.
- 1572 John Knox, the Scotch reformer, died.
- The massacre of the Protestants at Paris, on St. Bartholomew's Day.
- 1579 The Dutch republic formed.

- 1579 English East India Company incorporated.
Turkey Company incorporated.
- 1580 Sir Francis Drake finished his voyage round the world.
Parochial registers first appointed to be kept in England.
- 1582 George Buchannan, of Dumbartonshire, in Scotland, the historian and poet, died.
- 1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
- 1587 Mary Queen of Scotland beheaded, after an imprisonment of 18 years.
- 1588 The Spanish armada defeated.
The manufacture of paper first established in England, at Dartford.
- 1589 Coaches first introduced into England.
- 1590 Band of pensioners instituted in England.
- 1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
- 1597 Watches first introduced into England from Germany.
- 1598 Edmund Spenser, the English poet, died.
- 1600 English East India Company established.
- 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
- 1603 Queen Elizabeth died, and was succeeded by James VI. of Scotland, which united both kingdoms under the title of Great Britain.
- 1605 The gunpowder plot discovered.
- 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
- 1608 Galileo, of Florence, first discovered the satellites of Saturn.
- 1610 Henry IV. King of France, murdered at Paris by Ravallac, a priest.
- 1611 The order of baronets first created in England, by James I.
- 1614 Napier, of Marcheston in Scotland, first discovered the logarithms.
The New River brought from Ware to London, by Sir Hugh Middleton.
- 1615 Beaumont, the dramatic author, died.
- 1616 William Shakespeare, of Stratford upon Avon, the illustrious dramatist, died.
- 1619 Dr. William Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood in animals.
- 1620 The manufacture of broad silk introduced into England.
- 1621 New England planted by puritans.
- 1622 John Napier, the inventor of the logarithms, died.
- 1623 William Camden, the antiquarian, died.
- 1625 Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West Indies, planted.
Fletcher, the dramatic writer, and associate of Beaumont, died.
- 1626 The celebrated Lord Chancellor Bacon, of Verulam, died.
- 1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, of Norfolk, died.
- 1635 Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
- 1638 Ben Johnson, the dramatic writer, died.
- 1641 Sir Henry Spelman, of Norfolk, the antiquarian, died.
- 1642 Charles I. impeached five members of the House of Commons; which began the civil war in England.
- 1643 Excise on ale, beer, &c. first imposed by parliament.
- 1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, in the 49th year of his age.
- 1654 Oliver Cromwell assumed the protectorship.
John Seldon, of Suffex, the antiquarian, died.
- 1660 Charles II. restored, after an exile of twelve years.
Frederick III. of Denmark became absolute, by the voluntary surrender of the people.
- 1662 Charles II. established the Royal Society at London.
- 1665 The plague raged in London, and carried off 68,000 persons.
- 1666 The great fire in London, which destroyed 400 streets, containing 13,000 houses.
- 1667 The peace of Breda concluded.
Abraham Cowley, the poet, died.
- 1668 The peace of Aix la Chapelle concluded.
- 1670 The Hudson's Bay Company incorporated.

- 1672 Louis XIV. ravaged great part of Holland, when the Dutch opened their sluices, with a determination to drown their country.
English African Company established.
- 1674 John Milton, the English epic poet, died.
- 1675 James Gregory, of Aberdeen, the mathematician, died.
- 1677 Dr. Isaac Barrow, of London, the mathematician, died.
- 1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
- 1680 Samuel Butler, the poet, died.
A great comet appeared, which from its vicinity to the earth greatly alarmed the public.
- 1685 Thomas Otway, the dramatic poet, died.
The revocation of the edict of Nantz, by Louis XIV.
- 1687 Edmund Waller, of Bucks, the poet, died.
- 1688 The revolution began in Great Britain.
King William and Queen Mary proclaimed.
- 1689 The land-tax first passed in England.
- 1690 King William gained the battle of the Boyne, in Ireland.
Nathaniel Lee, the dramatic poet, died.
- 1692 Admiral Ruffel defeated the French fleet off Cape La Hogue.
- 1693 The Bank of England established by King William.
- 1694 Stamp duties instituted in England.
Archbishop Tillotson died.
- 1696 The peace of Ryswick.
- 1700 King James II. died at St. Germain's, in the 68th year of his age.
- 1701 John Dryden, of Northamptonshire, the celebrated English poet, died.
Prussia erected into a kingdom.
- 1704 John Locke, of Somersetshire, died.
Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim fought.
- 1705 John Ray, of Essex, the naturalist, died.
The Court of Exchequer instituted in England.
- 1706 The treaty of union between England and Scotland.
- 1707 The first British parliament held.
George Farquhar, of Londonderry, the dramatist, died.
- 1708 Sardinia erected into a kingdom.
- 1710 St. Paul's Cathedral rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at the expence of one million sterling, raised by a duty on coals.
The English South Sea Company began.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht concluded.
- 1714 Queen Anne died, and was succeeded by George I.
Interest on money reduced to 5l. per cent. per annum.
- 1715 The rebellion in Scotland began in favour of the Pretender.
- 1716 Septennial parliaments commenced.
- 1718 Nicholas Rowe, of Devonshire, the dramatic writer and translator, died.
- 1719 Joseph Addison, of Wiltshire, author of the Spectator, &c. died.
Lombe's silk-throwing machine erected at Derby.
- 1721 Matthew Prior, the poet, died.
- 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, of Lincolnshire, the philosopher, died.
Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
Russia first erected into an empire.
- 1729 Sir Richard Steele, the colleague of Addison, died.
William Congreve, of Staffordshire, the dramatic poet, died.
- 1732 John Gay, of Exeter, the poet and fabulist, died.
- 1734 Dr. Arbuthnot, of Mearnsire, died.
- 1738 Westminster Bridge began.

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- 1744 Alexander Pope, the celebrated English poet, died.
- 1745 The rebellion broke out in Scotland.
Dr. Jonathan Swift, of Dublin, died.
- 1746 The British Linen Company erected.
- 1748 James Thomson, of Roxburghshire, the author of the Seasons, &c. died.
Dr. Isaac Watts, of Southampton, the poet and divine, died.
The peace of Aix la Chapelle.
- 1749 The British Herring Fishery incorporated.
- 1751 The Antiquarian Society of London incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain: the third of September being accounted the fourteenth.
- 1753 The British Museum erected at Montague House.
Society of arts, manufactures, and commerce, instituted in London.
- 1754 Henry Fielding, of Somersetshire, the celebrated novelist, died.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
- 1759 General Wolfe killed at the battle of Quebec, in the moment of victory.
George Frederic Handel, of Halle, in Upper Saxony, the great musical composer, died.
- 1760 Black-Friars Bridge begun.
- 1761 Samuel Richardson, of London, the celebrated novelist, died.
- 1762 Peter III. Emperor of Russia, deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.
- 1763 The treaty of Paris concluded.
- 1764 Parliament granted Mr. Harrison 10,000l. for the invention of his time piece.
Charles Churchill, the poet, died at Bologna.
- 1765 The Society of Artists incorporated by royal charter.
Dr. Edward Young, the poet and divine, died.
- 1768 Laurence Sterne died.
Royal Academy of Painting established in London.
- 1770 Dr. Akenfide, of Newcastle upon Tyne, the poet, died.
Dr. Smollet, of Dumbartonshire, the novelist and historian, died.
- 1771 Thomas Gray, the poet, died.
- 1772 The King of Sweden changed the constitution of that kingdom from an aristocracy to a limited monarchy.
- 1773 The Jesuits expelled from the papal dominions.
George Lord Lyttelton, the poet and historian, died.
Philip Dormer Stanhope, Earl of Chesterfield, died.
- 1774 Peace proclaimed between the Russians and the Turks.
Dr. Goldsmith, the poet, naturalist, and historian, died.
- 1775 Deputies from the several American colonies met at Philadelphia, and assumed the title of 'The Congress of the United States of America.'
The battle of Bunker's Hill, between the Royalists and Americans.
Dr. Hawkesworth, author of the Adventurer, &c. died.
- 1776 The Congress declared the American States free and independent, July 4.
David Hume, of Merse, the historian, died.
James Ferguson, of Aberdeenshire, the astronomer, died.
- 1777 Samuel Foote, of Cornwall, the comedian, died.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded between the King of France and the Thirteen United States of America, in which their independence was acknowledged.
The Right Honourable William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, died.
Dr. Arne, the most famous British composer of music, died.
- 1779 David Garrick, the British Roscius, died.
The King of Spain joined France in establishing American independence.
- 1780 Admiral Rodney defeated the Spanish fleet under Don Juan Langara.
London abandoned by it's magistrates to the fury of a licentious mob.

- 1780 Sir William Blackstone, author of the celebrated Commentaries on the laws of England, died.
Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, which occasioned great devastations.
Hostilities commenced with the Dutch, who were discovered to have entered into a secret treaty of alliance nearly two years preceding.
- 1781 Admiral Parker defeated the Dutch fleet, commanded by Admiral Zoutman.
- 1782 Admiral Rodney obtained a signal victory over the French fleet, commanded by Count de Grasse, whom he took prisoner.
Captain Cook, the famous navigator, murdered by the savages of Owhyhee.
Lord Kaimes died.
The Royal George, of 100 guns, overfet by accident, at Portsmouth, on the 28th of August; when Admiral Kempenselt, with 400 officers and seamen, and about 200 women, were drowned.
The grand attack of the French and Spaniards on Gibraltar, by sea and land, completely defeated, with the loss of all their floating batteries, and about 4000 men.
The Inquisition abolished in Spain.
- 1783 American independence acknowledged by Great Britain.
Definitive treaty of peace concluded between the belligerent powers.
Dr. Hunter, the famous anatomist, died.
Messina, and great part of Calabria Ultra, in the kingdom of Naples, destroyed by an earthquake.
A new island rose out of the sea, near Iceland.
The first Air-Balloon sent up at Paris, by Messieurs Montgolfiers.
- 1784 Dr. Johnson, of Litchfield, author of the Rambler, &c. died.
Captain James King, the coadjutor of Captain Cook, died.
Signor Lunardi ascended in an Air-Balloon, from the Artillery Ground, Moorfields; being the first person who explored the British atmosphere.

ADDRESS TO THE PUBLIC.

IMPRESSED with every sense of gratitude, Mr. MARTYN ardently embraces this opportunity of making his most earnest acknowledgments to a generous Public, and to his numerous Subscribers in particular, under whose auspices he has been enabled to finish the GEOGRAPHICAL MAGAZINE with an éclat which seldom attends less elegant and useful productions. He felicitates himself on being instrumental, in conjunction with his spirited publishers, in diffusing the most liberal, the most ornamental, and the most useful of all sciences; and he congratulates his Subscribers on the acquisition they have gained, in being presented with a Pair of Elegant GLOBES, with all the Modern Improvements, which, independent of the work itself, are nearly equal in value to the whole purchase-money. By these assistances, the noble and elevating sciences of Geography and Astronomy may be attained without waste of time, or profusion of expence; the heart may be enlarged, while the fancy is amused, and the soul animated to pursuits worthy of itself, and honourable to the CREATOR. Having compleated this important work, as he hopes, with credit to himself and utility to the public, Mr. MARTYN is emboldened to recommend his NEW DICTIONARY OF NATURAL HISTORY with COLOURED PRINTS to the attention of his friends; and he flatters himself that, from a consideration of the uncommon elegance of it's execution, and it's native and intrinsic value, they will liberally bestow that distinguished patronage on this splendid and interesting publication, which it's author shall be ever studious to deserve.

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* This Plate, which the Engraver has by mistake given the title of another, (Page 571, Vol. II.) is in reality the representation of 'A Human Sacrifice, in a Morai, at Otaheite;' the dates at the bottoms of the respective Plates will direct how to distinguish them.

